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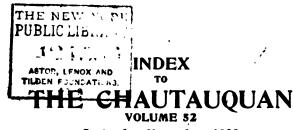


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1908

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September-November, 1908

Aula Christi, Dedication of, 443.

Bonn, Student Life in: The Experiences of an American Student, 427.

Chautauqua Assemblies, Reports from, 469.

C. L. S. C. Round Table: C. L. S. C. "Easy for Anybody," 120; Dr. Emil Reich, 124; Mr. George Wharton Edwards, 128; The First Book of the Year, 125; The Småll Circle, 126; Esperanto, 126; Illustrated Lectures for Chautauqua Readers, 127; Readings and Programs, 129; News from Readers and Circles, 133; Brief Membranda, 141; The Class of 1908 at Chautauqua, 287; The Vincent Class, 294; The Vicennial of '88, 295; The C. L. S. C. at Chautauqua, 296; The New Freshman Class, 298; The Class of 1909, 299; Programs and Questions, 301; C. L. S. C. Class Directory, 308; Sifting Process, 448; Comments by the Editor, 449; Chautauquans in Chile, 449; Required Reading and Programs, 456; Review Outline of Dutch History, 462; News from Readers and Circles, 465.

Danger Points around the Globe, 178.

DAUDET, ALPHONSE. The Elixir of Pere Gaucher, 408.

Dobson, Austin. Vader Cats, 232.

Dutch Art and Artists: I. Frans Hals and the Portrait, 65; II. Rembrandt, 2.14;

III. Rembrandt and His Pupils, 376.

Edwards, George Wharton. A Reading Journey in the Hollow-Land, 36, 192, 352.

Esperanto, A Short Course in, 155, 313, 487.

European Short Stories: On the Journey, by Guy de Maupassant, 110; The Three Hermits, by Leo Tolstoy, 279; The Elixir of Pére Gaucher, by Alphonee Daudet, 408.

Friendship of Nations, The: International War or Peace? I. The Present European Equilibrium and the Peace of the World, 18; II. Danger Points Around the Globe, 178; III. The Story of the Peace Movement, 336.

German Social Policy, The, 397.

HALS, FRANS, and the Portrait, 65.

HARPER, PAUL VINCENT. Student Life in Bonn: The Experiences of An American Student, 427.

HENDERSON, CHARLES RICHMOND. The German Social Policy, 397.

Highways and Byways: The Presidential Campaign, 3; The Issues and the Personalities, 4; The Famous "Oil Case" Reversed, 7; The Prohibition Ticket and Platform, 8; Progress in National Education, 10; The School and the Chasm, 13; The Douma, Tolstoy, and the Russian Situation, 14; Reaction of Persia and European Responsibility, 15; The Presidential Campaign, 167; Primary Laws and Popular Rule, 169; The Cuban Situation and Prospects, 170; Arbitration and Compulsion, 171; The British Old Age Pension Act, 173; Turkey as a Constitutional State, 174; Tyranny of the Speaker, 321; Guaranteeing of Bank Deposits, 322; Defects in the Direct Nomination System, 324; Commodities Clause Cases, 326; Doubts and Fears as to Turkey, 328; Complications in Morocco and European Peace, 330; Aeroplane and Conquest of the Air, 331; Note and Comment, 333.

Hollow-Land (Holland), A Reading Journey In: I. Its Origin, 36; II. Its Char-

acteristics, 192; III. Customs and Manners, 352.

Kaiser, The German. A Symposium of Opinions: Harold Frederic, 100; Impressions of Wolf von Schierbrand, 249; A French Impression, Maurice Leudet, 434.
 Library Shelf: Assassination of William the Silent, 85; The Siege and Relief of Leyden, 260; Admiral De Ruyter, 418.

MAUPASSANT, GUY DE. On the Journey, 110.

Peace, International. (See Friendship of Nations.) Peace Movement, The Story of, 336.

Digitized by Google

Peace Movement. (See Friendship of Nations.)
Present European Equilibrium and the Peace in the World, The, 18.
Rembrandt, 214. Rembrandt and His Pupi in the World, The, 18.
Rembrandt, 214. Rembrandt and His Pupi in the World, The Hornouth in the World, Tolstov, Leo. The Three Hermits, 279.
TRUEBLOOD, BENJAMIN F. The Story of the Peace Movement, 336.
Vader Cats, 232. (Reprinted by Permission.)
Vesper Hour, The, 117, 272, 443.
Vincent, Chancellor John H. The Vesper Hour, 117, 272, 443.
Varros, Victor S. The Present European Equilibrium and the Peace of the World, 18; Danger Points Around the Globe, 178.
Zug, George Breed. Dutch Art and Artists, 65, 214, 376.

PICTURE-INDEX.

Aula Christi, 442.

Cats, Jacob: Twelve cats illustrating the original edition of his poems, 236-247.

C. L. S. C. Round Table: Library, Wellsville, N. Y., 121, 122; Views in Santiago, Chile, 123; St. Paul's Grove and Hall of Philosophy, 288; C. L. S. C. Class of 1908 Passing through Golden Gate, 289; Flower Girls on Recognition Day, 290; C. L. S. C. Class of 1908, 291; Rallying Day Reception, 292; Concepcion College, Chile, 451-2; C. L. S. C., Urbana, Illinois, Class Day, 453; Class of 1909, 453-

DE RUYTER, ADMRAL, Four Days' Battle with English Fleet, 424.

Dutch Art and Artists: "The Little Princess," by Moreelse, 2; Statue of Hals, 67
"Laughing Cavalier," Hals, 69; "Nurse and Child," Hals, 70; "Gipsy Girl," Hals, 71; "Portrait of a Man," Hals, 72; "The Serenade," Judith Leyster, 73; "St. Joris Shooting Company," Hals, 74; "Officers of St. Adriaen's Shooting Guild," 75; "The Drinker," by Judith Leyster, 76; "The Anatomy Lesson," Rembrandt, 219; "The Night Watch," 220; "Officers of St. Adriaen's Shooting Company," Van der Helst, 221; "Rembrandt," by Himself, 222, 223; "Mennonite Preacher," 224; "Syndics of the Cloth Guild," 225; "Portrait of an Old Woman," 226; Simeon in Temple, Rembrandt; Angel Leaving Tobias, Rembrandt; Christ at Emmaus, Rembrandt; The Good Samaritan, Rembrandt; Christ Healing the Sick, Rembrandt; A Negress, Gerard Dou; Portrait of Himself, Gerard Dou; Night School, Gerard Dou. (Pages 381-390.)

Friendship of Nations: The Consequences of War, Rubens, 320; Fatherland, Georges

Bertrand, 345; The Last Cannon, Wiertz, 346.

Hollow-Land (Holland). A Reading Journey in: "Negotiations with Spain in Twelve Years' Truce," Van de Venne, 50; Trial of Oldenbarneveld, 51; Independence Monument at Hague, 52; Queen Wilhelmina of Holland, 53; Harbor at Delfshaven, Holland, 54; Harbor Scene and Church, Delfshaven, 55; Tablet to Memory of Rev. John Robinson, Leiden, 56; Robinson's House, Leiden, 57; Interior of Church, Delfshaven, 58; Dairy Proprietor and Wife, 199; Cheese Factory and House, 200, 201; Meadow, 202; Windmill and Canal, 202; Windmills at Zaandam, 203; Scene on Canal, 203; Hyacinth Farm, 204; Tulip Farm, 205; Cattle in Meadows, 206; Dog-Cart, Volendam, 206; Milking Cows, 207; Hollanders of Island of Marken, 207; Dutch Fishing Boat, 208; Fleet of Fishing Boats, 209; Fishing Boats, Marken, 210; North Sea, 355; Fishing Boat, 355; Typical Scenes, 356-7; Snap Shots, 358; Dutch Types of Fisherfolk, Peasants, etc., 359-365; Dutch Landscapes, 366.

Leyden: Old Rhine, 267; Spaniards Bridge, 268; Sea Gate, 270; Witte Gate, 270.

Maps: Balkan Peninsula, 183; Morocco, 186; Persia, 188; Aland Islands, 190; Holland, 197; Leyden, 263.

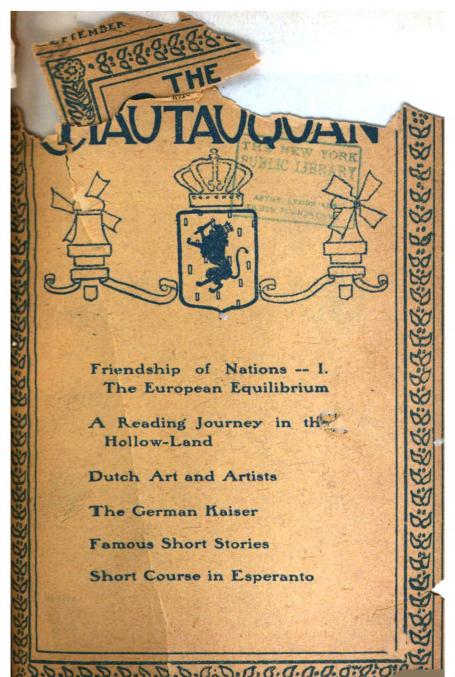
William the Silent, Spot where Killed, 95.

The Chautauquan

PORTRAITS.

Alva, Duke of, 47. Buelow, Chancellor von, 22. Cats, Jacob, 235. Charlemagne, 43. Charles V., 44. Delcasse, M., 25. De Ruyter, Admiral, 423. De Witt, the Brothers, 49. Edward VII. of England, 19. Edwards, Dr. George Wharton, 124. Egmont, Count, 45. Franz-Joseph, Emperor of Austria, 23. Grey, Sir Edward, 24. Henry of Holland, Prince, 45. Hoorne, Count of, 45. Maximilian I., 44. Philip the Good of Burgundy, 44. Philip II. of Spain, 46. Reich, Dr. Emil, 124. Rembrandt, Statue of, 166. Schimmelpenninck, R. J., 45. Tennyson, Portrait by Rajon, 454. Tromp, Martin Harpertzoon, 44. Tzar of Russia, 26. Valdez, Don Franciscus de, 269. Van der Does, Jean, 269. Van der Werf, Peter A., 268. Victor Emanuel III. of Italy, 20. William II. of Germany, 21, 105, 106, 257, 258. William the Silent (of Orange), 48, 94. William, Emperor of Germany, and Empress, 441.





The Charon

PORTRAITS.

Alva, Duke of, 47. Buelow, Chancellor von, 22.

nor erlemagne, 43. 10 maintain its unque

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(See "Dutch Art and Artists.")

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

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SEPTEMBER, 1908.

No. 1.



In one respect the present presidential campaign is unique and unprecedented. There is to be full publicity as regards campaign contributions, though the law does not require it. Congress failed to enact a bill providing for the publication of lists of contributors and amounts by national campaign committees, and the Republican convention rejected a publicity plank that was proposed by the Wisconsin delegation. However, Mr. Taft has been an advocate of publicity and has directed that the New York state law be followed by the Republican committee, whose headquarters are in that state, regardless of any question of its technical applicability to the case. The treasurer of the committee, Mr. Sheldon, has announced that, in accordance with that law, an account will be published after the November election.

On the other hand, Mr. Bryan and his managers have announced and put in effect a system of publicity "before" the election. Only late contributions will be accounted for after that event: all others will be made known to the people at the time of their receipt by the campaign treasurer and his aids.

These developments mark a great step forward in our politics. For years all upright citizens have deplored the elements of waste, extravagance, secrecy and corruption, or fear and suspicion of corruption, in our campaigns. In local contests the practice of "gentlemen's agreements" between

managers has come into vogue, the object of such agreements being to lessen expense and prevent abuse and corruption. In national politics, apparently, a new departure has been made. Elections will be regarded more and more as public affairs, and they will be determined by arguments and appeals to fact and reason, and not by noise and spectacular demonstrations. Expenses will be regulated and restricted, and public accounting will limit them to absolutely legitimate and proper methods of influencing voters—printing of documents, hiring of halls, correspondence, etc. The first step has been taken, and others will follow.

As to contributions from corporations, not many seemed to be aware at the outset of the campaign that a law already existed prohibiting and severely penalizing such contributions. Only individuals are now legally able to contribute to national campaigns; corporations are forbidden to do so. Scandalous misuse of stockholders' money, the bribing of two or more sets of campaign managers "impartially" and at the same time, and like evils caused a demand for the act in question, and it was passed early in 1907. To some politicians this act proved a revelation, but it will help to make the campaign clean and legitimate.



The Issues and the Personalities

As the presidential campaign progresses it is more and more widely realized that each of the great parties has put its best foot forward this year. Candid Democratic observers are admitting that Mr. Taft is a strong candidate who is displaying much ability and tact in meeting the problems of the contest. Independent and fair Republican newspapers are admitting that in Mr. Bryan the Democrats have the natural and logical candidate for the presidency. Neither party started out with a mistake; neither underestimates the qualities of the other's presidential ticket.

Mr. Bryan secured his nomination in spite of opposition from politicians and machines, and without the aid of money or patronage. Those who bitterly attacked him in former

years are bitterly attacking him now; to them he is still the dangerous radical, the demagogue, the maker of phrases. They would have brought about his defeat in the convention had not an overwhelming majority of the Democratic voters demanded his selection as standard-bearer, and had not the other candidates in the party declined and faded into a mere shadowy existence. Mr. Bryan leads the Democrats once more because his ideas and proposals are popularas popular as are those of the President with the great majority of the Republicans. Mr. Taft is the Republican candidate because he is pledged to continue the reform policies of the present administration; Mr. Bryan is the Democratic leader because he is identified with an advanced and radical program. In each party the progressive wing is "on top," and the conservatives who are demanding "a rest." the cessation of agitation for reform, have had to subside and submit.

The Democratic platform is more radical than the Republican. It was intended to be so, and Mr. Bryan and his co-workers in the campaign are hoping on that account to attract and win over Republican radicals and ardent Rooseveltians. The issue as it is shaping itself is framed by many as follows: Granting the need of further political, economic and social reform, of continued warfare against evils and abuses, which candidate is the more likely to prove the consistent and bold champion of the cause of progress and reform?

A study of the two platforms shows that on many subjects the parties are in accord. Several planks in each are different from the corresponding ones in the other in mere phraseology or in minor details. This is true of the planks dealing with the navy, civil service, liberal pensions, conservation of natural resources, prevention of land frauds, improvement of water ways, etc. On the questions of the tariff, trust control, railroad regulation, labor, the currency, the Philippines, bank deposits and taxation, not to name minor topics, the Denver platform may be said to join issue

with that of the Republicans. The Democrats incorporated some planks which a Republican minority, following the President, insisted on but failed to secure at Chicago. They declared for direct popular election of federal senators, a physical valuation of railroads with a view to scientific rate regulation, full publicity for campaign contributions. They declared for the extermination, instead of the control, of private monopoly, for placing all trust-manipulated goods on the free list, for reducing tariff duties to a revenue basis as rapidly as possible, for emergency notes issued by the government rather than by the banks, for an income tax, for an immediate announcement of intention to give the Filipinos independence, for the guaranteeing of private deposits in the national banks under a system similar to that now in force in Oklahoma, for a strong law fixing upon employers liability for accidents to their employes, for an eight-hour day on government work, and for limitations upon the issuance of injunctions after such a manner that no court could issue an injunction in an industrial dispute if no injunction were possible in a similar case affecting other interests than those of labor and capital.

On all issues except Philippine independence and "colonial" imperialism the differences in the respective planks are thus differences of degree. The Democrats are more radical than the Republicans but less radical than they were four and eight years ago, while the Republicans are more radical than before, though not as radical as the militant reformers wished the party to be.

The prospects are for a quieter and more reasonable campaign, for less denunciation and more argument; for "less heat and more light." Many editors and citizens are pleading for a rational campaign, one free from abuse, personalities, invective, in the interests of political honesty as well as in those of commerce and reviving prosperity. Men of affairs feel that in spite of politics business should steadily improve, since the issues of the campaign are neither new nor dangerous, and since the success of neither candidate

would spell a break with present policies and sudden departures.

There will be more harmony in the Democratic party than in the previous three elections, but in the East the Bryan ticket still has few newspaper supporters. Independents are leaning toward Mr. Taft but critical and vigorous in their comments on the situation. Both sets of leaders and managers admit that hard work is ahead of them and that there will be a lively and determined fight, especially in the West, which is to be the battle ground this year. All save one or two of the so-called doubtful states are in the West.



The Famous "Oil Case" Reversed

The reversal by the federal Circuit Court at Chicago of the decision of Judge Landis in the notable case of the United States vs. the Standard Oil Company of Indiana, one of the constituents of the Standard Oil trust, has legal as well as political aspects. The appellate tribunal severely criticised Judge Landis, alleging the he abused his discretion in imposing the stupendous \$20,000,000 fine; that he arbitrarily computed the alleged offences of the defendant, making the number of cars in which oil was transported at unlawful rates the number of offenses punishable each by the maximum fine; and that he misinterpreted the law in holding that shippers must investigates rates instead of accepting those quoted by carriers and make sure that they are fair and lawful. It strongly intimated that Judge Landis had himself disregarded the law in seeking to punish the larger corporation, that was not before him as a party, for the sins of the smaller corporation, the legal defendant. In turn the appellate court is severely arraigned in many newspapers and by lawyers and laymen for alleged injustice to Judge Landis, for misquoting his words and misstating his position. The whole issue of "criticism of the courts" has been revived, and all admit that the great case will figure as a factor in the campaign.

It is unfortunate that under the law as it stands the government has no right to appeal from the Circuit to the Supreme Court on the issues of law involved in the reversal. An act was passed by the Fifty-ninth Congress giving the government a limited right to appeal in criminal cases, but it does not embrace the class of cases to which the one in question belongs.

Ultimately, however, the Supreme Court will have the facts and issues before it, and it will determine whether Judge Landis or Judges Grosscup, Baker, and Seaman adopted the correct view of the commerce and anti-rebate or preference law as to the duties of shippers with regard to rates quoted to them, as to the proper method of computing offences, as to the limit of discretion in imposing fines, and as to the propriety of going outside the record of a case and finding out the affiliations, assets and character of the defendants with the idea of making the law and the general facts harmonize.

Until the highest court speaks opinion will honestly differ on the merits of the case and the soundness of the Landis decision. But there is no reason to doubt the integrity, the earnestness, the independence of either court. The case is undoubtedly full of novel and difficult points.

The Prohibition Ticket and Platform

The American prohibition movement, as we have had occasion to say before, has in recent years received impetus and encouragement from many new quarters. In the South remarkable gains have been made for and by prohibition under local option and state laws. Hundreds of thousands who vote as Republicans or Democrats have enlisted in the campaign against the saloon. The area of prohibition in the South and West is amazingly large, and while the con-

sumption of liquor shows an increase instead of a diminution for the country at large, the gains spoken of are very real. Even the liquor trade is alarmed and beginning to show earnest interest in reforming the saloon and the resort associated with vice and disorder.

At the national convention of the Prohibitionists, which was held at Columbus, O., in the latter part of July, the speakers dwelt with pride and satisfaction on the progress of their cause, if not of their party organization. A presidential ticket was nominated—Eugene W. Chafin of Illinois for President, and Aaron S. Watkins of Ohio for Vice President—and a platform was adopted that many newspapers have praised as a model of brevity, sense and lucidity. The whole platform may be reproduced here, as it shows where the Prohibitionists stand with regard to other issues of the day besides the issue that separates and distinguishes them from the other parties. The party favors:

The submission by Congress to the several states of an amendment to the federal Constitution prohibiting the manufacture, sale, importation, exportation or transportation of alcoholic liquors for

beverage purposes.

The immediate prohibition of the liquor traffic for beverage purposes in the District of Columbia, in the territories and all places over which the national government has jurisdiction, the repeal of the internal revenue tax on alcoholic liquors and the prohibition of the interstate traffic there.

The election of the United States Senators by direct vote of

the people.

Equitable graduated income and inheritance taxes.

The establishment of postal savings banks and the guaranty of deposits in banks.

The regulation of all corporations doing an interstate com-

merce business.

The creation of a permanent tariff commission.

The strict enforcement of law, instead of the official tolerance and practical license of the social evil which prevails in many of our cities, with its unspeakable traffic in girls.

Uniform marriage and divorce laws.

An equitable and constitutional employers' liability act.

Court review of Postoffice Department decisions.

The prohibition of child labor in mines, workshops and factories.

Legislation basing suffrage only upon intelligence and ability

to read and write the English language.

The preservation of the mineral and forest resources of the country and the improvement of the highways and byways.

Here, as in the platform of the bigger parties, the spirit and tendencies of the time are strikingly illustrated and expressed. The positions taken on social, economic, and political questions are decidedly advanced.

The Prohibitionists do not claim that they will elect their ticket, but they do assert that the stress of tendency is with them and that success is almost within their grasp in the sense that prohibition will soon embrace the whole country.

In 1904 the Prohibition presidential vote was 258,536, and in 1900 it was 208,914; not in all the states, however, were there separate Prohibition tickets of presidential electors. This year the total vote is expected to be much heavier. But the growth and influence of the movement will not, in any event, be gauged by the vote. The indirect forces and factors working for prohibition will not be represented in it.

Progress in National Education

That Americans "have a passion for education," elementary, secondary and high has become a familiar saying the world over. Nowhere is education more liberally or lavishly endowed, and nowhere do the people tax themselves more cheerfully to provide free and sufficient education to all children, as well as to adult aliens who desire to acquire the rudiments of English and of other fundamental studies. For the latter there are night schools, special classes and settlement classes. For the children of the poor there are vacation schools where pleasure and recreation are combined with practical and manual instruction. As to the higher nontechnical education some statistics were recently published by Dr. Elmer E. Brown, federal commissioner of education, that have been widely commented upon. It appears that 622 institutions of higher learning are available in the country. Of these, seventeen universities and colleges have 1,000 or more male undergraduates each, four have over 900 men students each, and 114 have 200 or more such undergraduates.

In the establishment of elementary and high schools the progress is steady and rapid, and the same is true of the professional schools. Yet there are very serious and vital problems before American educators. They have to do, not with quantity but with quality. New conditions create new needs; ideas are changing; neglected aspects of education are challenging attention. Is there proper adaptation of education to life in general and to industrial life in particular? Do the schools discharge their function efficiently? Do they omit things that should be included and unduly emphasize other things? Have they the right ideals and the right methods?

At the recent annual convention of the American Education Association these questions were vigorously discussed and certain defects in our system of public education were pointed out. The resolutions that were adopted are comprehensive and give one a fair idea of the whole situation. They note progress, recognize ripening and unsettled questions, and indicate needed reforms in several directions. We reproduce the more important parts of the resolutions because they largely carry their own moral:

Fully realizing that trained and skilled labor is a primary essential to the industrial and commercial welfare of the country, we cordially indorse the establishment by municipal boards of education of trade schools, industrial schools and evening continuation schools.

We recommend the subordination of highly diversified and overburdened courses of study in the grades to a thorough drill in essential subjects; ill considered experiments and indiscriminate methodizing should be abandoned.

We assert that the individuality of the pupil should be carefully considered, to the end that he may be instructed in the light of his limitations and capacity.

We earnestly recommend to boards of education, principals and teachers the continuous training of pupils in morals and in business and professional ethics, to the end that the coming generation of men of affairs may have a well developed abhorrence of unfair dealing and discrimination.

The bureau of education at Washington should be preserved in its integrity and the dignity of its position maintained and increased. It should receive at the hands of Congress such recognition

and such appreciation as will enable it not only to employ all expert assistants necessary, but also to publish in convenient and usable form the results of investigations; thus making that department a source of information and advice as will be most helpful to the people in conducting their campaigns of education.

The National Education Association notes with approval that the qualifications demanded of teachers in the public schools are

increasing annually.

It is the duty of the state to provide for the education of every child within its borders. To this end the child labor and truancy laws should be so harmonized that the education of the

child, not its labor, is made the chief concern.

The National Education Association indorses the increase of the school buildings for free vacation schools and for free evening schools and lecture courses for adults. We approve the use of school grounds for play grounds for the benefit of the children in the crowded districts during summer.

Local taxation, supplemented by state taxation, presents the

best means for the support of the public schools.

The National Education Association observes with great satisfaction the tendency of cities and towns to replace large school communities or boards by small boards, which determine general policies, but intrust all executive functions to salaried experts.

We cannot too often repeat that close, intelligent, judicious

supervision is necessary for all grades of schools.

The rapid establishment of rural high schools and the consolidation of rural district schools are most gratifying evidences of the progress of education.

The National Education Association wishes to record its approval of the increasing appreciation among educators of the fact

that the building of character is the real aim of the schools.

The National Education Association wishes to congratulate the secondary schools and colleges of the country that are making an effort to remove the taint of professionalism and other abuses that have crept into students' sports.

We hope for such a change of public sentiment as will permit

and encourage the reading and study of the English Bible.

School buildings and school grounds should be planned and decorated so as to serve as effective agencies for education in matters of taste.

The highest ethical standards of conduct and of speech should be insisted on among teachers.

Many important questions are adverted to in this declaration, but special emphasis is now properly laid on moral culture and industrial education. It is felt that the schools are far from doing all that they should and can do toward making good citizens, by inspiring high ideals and inculcating right standards, and toward fitting the pupils for the practical work of industrial and commercial life. In these directions great improvements are needful, and they are surely com-

ing. Beginnings have been made in several communities, and earnest discussion will insure progress at a reasonably rapid rate.



The School and the "Chasm"

In connection with the series of current educational questions, the chasm created in many homes by our present system of public school training challenges attention. Miss Jane Addams, the head of Hull-House and leader in social reform, is practically alone in directing thought to this matter. The work of the elementary schools in facilitating and promoting the assimilation of aliens, of "Americanizing" their young, is of course essential and invaluable. Without this work the heavy immigration of the last twenty years might have "swamped" us; at any rate, American political and public life would not be what it is, and our dangers and difficulties would be increased in every way. Yet this process of assimilation or Americanization is not without serious drawbacks, as Miss Addams has forcibly and admirably said in addresses and articles.

In thousands of foreign homes it creates a division, a moral chasm, between the children and the parents. The former are learning English and acquiring American ways; they are proud to call themselves Americans; they take pains to divest themselves of every feature that reminds them or others of their foreign birth or of the birth of their parents. They come to despise the traditions of the "old country," to be ashamed of the ways, customs, ideas of their families. The parents resent this and regard the "Americanization" of the children as by no means an unmixed blessing. At any rate, their own Americanization is retarded. What is worse, the discipline and peace and morals of the home are destroyed, and in their place we see dissension, antipathy, discord.

Miss Addams appeals to the educators to discourage such tendencies by teaching foreign children to respect na-

tionality and the culture of the old world, to understand that much that is foreign is good, noble and worth preserving, and that contempt for parents, even if they are ignorant and different, is not American. She also urges teachers to visit foreign homes, acquire some knowledge of the conditions and environment of the children put in their charge, and counteract everything that makes for the undesirable side of a too rapid assimilation—lack of reverence, vulgarity, insolence, imitation of the worst instead of the best.

These appeals and ideas have been strongly indorsed in the thoughtful newspapers, and they certainly point to a vital problem.

4

The Douma, Tolstoy, and the Russian Situation

Count Tolstoy, in a vigorous and impassioned philippic, recently denounced the policy of the Stolypin cabinet as "government by execution." Farcical trials, death sentences by the score, hanging of men, women, and minors, encouragement of black-hundred violence and disorder, bureaucratic tyranny and resistance to all reform, chronic famine and starvation for millions—these are the things, Tolstoy said, that are called law and order in Russia. He for one must repudiate and condemn them before the whole civilized world.

Many less uncompromising reformers than Tolstoy, the apostle of Christian Anarchism and passive resistance to state and organized church, are very pessimistic regarding the situation and prospects in Russia. The third douma, it is true, has not been dissolved; after a long and busy session the Tzar prorogued it until fall while expressing in private audience to its president hearty appreciation of its spirit, policy and course. It is generally expected that the present douma will complete its legal term of five years and accomplish something for Russian constitutionalism and progress. Its mere existence, of course, is a great benefit, for it insures discussion and criticism of official abuses and

certain reforms in administration and finance. It must be acknowledged, too, that on several occasions the majority of the third douma, though moderate and only mildly liberal, ventured boldly to attack the irresponsible control of army and naval affairs by the grand dukes, the inefficient and obstructive staff of the admiralty, and the provincial military despots. It also rejected the demand of the government for an appropriation for four new war ships-on the ground that the service had not been reformed and that the ships would serve no useful purpose at this time. Still, the fact remains that the douma neglected the vital and burning questions of Russia-agrarian reform, justice, freedom of speech and press, etc. The budget occupied most of its time, and it voted for heavy "defence" expenditures in the Pacific territories, for a new domestic loan to cover the deficit for the year, for an "all Russian" Amur railroad to Vladivostok, in addition to the road that traverses Manchuria, which is to be improved and largely reconstructed, and for other governmental measures. The government has no particular reason to be dissatisfied with its record to date, though it is gradually developing courage and confidence.

The Russian constitutionalists find some comfort, however, in the reflection that the reaction has been checked, that even the fanatical monarchists no longer hope to destroy the douma as an institution, and that certain small reforms are being conceded by the government. Progress will be very slow, and much injustice, suffering and cruelty will have to be endured, but the tendency, at any rate, is upward and forward. Not everything has been lost, and the Revolution will yet bear fruit.



Reaction of Persia, and European Responsibility

The Shah of Persia has tried a coup d'etat and succeeded. He has dismissed the national assembly, and destroyed the buildings in which it was housed. For a time

civil war was threatened all over the country, but the troops of the Shah, led by a Russian general, were so completely victorious at Teheran, the capital, that the provinces lost heart and submitted. In the capital the war between the constitutionalists and the reactionaries was savage and merciless, and tales of cruelty and torture, of wholesale executions and bombardments of private houses owned by liberal leaders and members of the assembly, have shocked the western world.

The causes of the counter-revolution are not clearly understood. It is known, however, that the Shah, though he has repeatedly sworn to uphold and respect the present constitution, which is less than a year old and which includes concessions to the throne, has never fully sympathized with the constitutional movement or cause and has on various occasions overstepped the limits of his power. There had been frequent collisions between him and his ministers, on the one hand, and the national assembly on the other. That assembly is by no means democratic, but it represents the mercantile elements, the priests, the educated citizens who have traveled abroad and a part of the aristocracy. The example of Russia has been before its eyes, and it has aimed at reform in many directions. When the final rupture came few good observers were surprised. Many at once concluded that the end of the whole parliamentary or constitutional experiment had come in Persia, which, they said, was not really ripe for any form of representative government and could not be other than a typical Oriental despotism.

Certainly the Shah's proclamation and explanation to his people and to the world indicated an absurd conception of constitutionalism. They were full of bitter complaints against "irresponsible" societies and clubs that "meddle" in governmental affairs, and against disturbers and agitators who had plotted against the throne and impudently demanded reform of a radical character. These private societies had to be suppressed with a firm hand, for government must remain

in the hands of trained and competent persons, the Shah continued. Unfortunately, he admitted, the national assembly supported them and was willing to use and be used by them; hence the war of extermination had to be extended to the assembly itself. These are strange notions, even for Persia, and they throw little light on the situation.

However, the Shah has ordered another election of members of the national assembly and has promised to respect the essentials of the constitution. He has decided to establish an upper chamber, which he has no right to do under the constitution, but after the *coup d'etat* this is a minor usurpation.

It is believed that England and Russia have prevented the Shah from overthrowing the new regime entirely. Their treaty, regulating their respective interests and spheres in Persia, renders cooperation between them a possible policv: if the treaty and understanding had not been reached the Persian internal disorders might have led to intervention, friction and war between England and Russia. it is also said that the understanding has hampered England in Persia and injured the cause of liberty and constitutionalism. Possibly the Shah and the reactionary cliques have relied on Russian support and have felt themselves safe from English displeasure and resentment. Thus Europe may be responsible for evil and reaction in Persia, and a diplomatic victory for peace in Europe may entail a defeat for liberalism in the Orient. This, however, is to a certain extent speculative. It is still hoped that the counterrevolution in Persia may not be complete and crushing.



I. The Present European Equilibrium and the Peace of the World

By Victor S. Yarros

OCH phrases as "the balance of power," the "concert of Europe," the "European Equilibrium" and the like have become thoroughly familiar even to the casual reader of the political news published in the daily and weekly press. The same casual reader knows that the powers of the world form various alliances, understandings, combinations among themselves for various purposes, either aggressive or defensive. Today, it is generally supposed and understood, the peace of the world rests upon and is secured by a number of such alliances and understandings. Any change in the present grouping of, or relations between, the great powers has a bearing on or constitutes a phase of what is called "world-politics," and may conceivably disturb the equilibrium.

Yet things constantly happen in the political and diplomatic spheres of activity, and every year, not to say every month, brings its crop of incidents, developments, events, and crises. There is no stability in international relations, for many problems are still unsolved in Europe, Asia, America, and there are, unfortunately, many grounds for suspicion, jealousy, friction, and discord between the leading powers. The great German empire builder and diplomat, Bismarck, says in his "Reflections and Reminiscences:"

"International policy is a fluid element which, under certain conditions, will solidify, but, on change of atmos-



King Edward of England, who has done much to Promote good Feeling between European Powers.



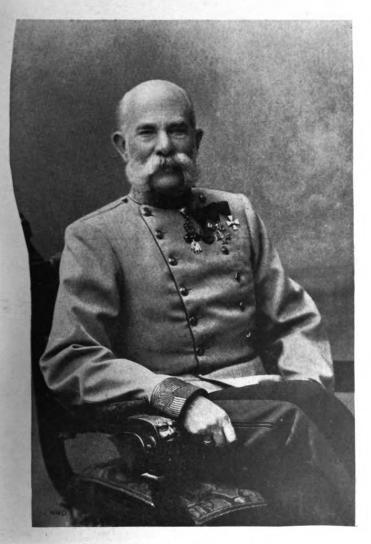
Victor Emanuel III., King of Italy.



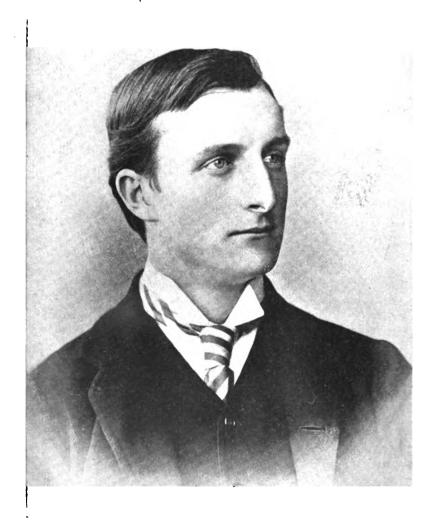
Kaiser Wilhelm II., the War Lord of Germany.



Chancellor von Buelow of Germany, one of the greatest Diplomats in Europe.



Emperor Franz Joseph of Austro-Hungary.



Sir Edward Grey, who aided in concluding Anglo-Russian Treaty.

phere, reverts to its original condition."

The important fact to be recognized is that nations even more than individuals and corporations, are governed by their fundamental needs and interests. Dynastic ties, personal and family friendships, individual temperaments are not wholly without influence on international policy, but their influence is limited and transitory. In the long run, geographical, historical, physical, commercial, organic conditions determine the foreign policy of a nation—its ambitions, aspirations, efforts and measures. Hence, when any real need or vital interest dictates a revision or even a reversal of policy all one



M. Delcassé, formerly French Foreign Minister.

vision or even a reversal of policy, all opposition of a sentimental nature vanishes as if by magic.

A glance at the "world-situation" at this juncture reveals certain cardinal features. We have a condition of fairly stable equilibrium. All the great powers are professing an anxious desire to maintain peace. All are earnestly disclaiming agressive designs. All are favoring straightforwardness, candor, and "sweet reasonableness" in international relations. Whether the Emperor of Germany visits England, or the King of Great Britain and Ireland visits France, or a meeting is arranged between the Tzar and his Teutonic or Austro-Hungarian fellow-sovereign, the message, formal or informal, which the world receives as the result of the affair is a message of peace and cordiality. Yet Europe has well been described as an armed camp. Military and naval expenditures are steadily mounting; the suggestion of even partial disarmament, or limitation of budgets for so-called defence, has remained a vague aspiration, a dream.

An able writer, Mr. J. Holland Rose, closes a book on "The Development of the European Nations, 1870-1900," with these depressing sentences:



The Tzar of Russia, a Leader in the Movement for International Peace.

"What was true of the middle of the eighteenth century is trebly true of the dawn of twentieth century. Viewing the matter broadly. we must admit that the present state of armed truce combines many of worst evils war and of an emasculating torpor. It is neither a state of rest which builds up the fabric of humanity, nor a time of heroic endeavor such as sometimes mitigates the evils of war. The individual is crushed by a sense of helplessness he gazes at the millions armed on all sides of

him. . . . From these weltering masses, engaged in piling up work upon work against some remote contingency, there arises and will still more arise a dull, confused, questioning murmur, whether the whips of fear which drive them on are not wielded by some malignant fury masquerading in the garb of peace—whether the whole gigantic effort is not a hideous nightmare, a game with men's lives doomed to end in stalemate."

This is a good description of the sort of "balance" which Europe is boasting of today; and yet it is a fact of tremendous significance that since the war of 1870 Germany "has not fired a shot in anger" (to use the expression of a brilliant journalist) and that since the Russo-Turkish conflict of 1877 Europe has not been the scene of any hostilities. Provocations and opportunities have not been lacking, but the peace has been kept, friendly relations have been strengthened, and safeguards multiplied.

Among these safeguards are the alliances and understandings which exist today in Europe. Some of them are recent and full of vitality; others, it is held by competent students, are mere survivals, whose significance, once great, has been impaired by the march of events. Still, so long as they remain in effect, they are factors that must be reckoned with.

In brief, it may be said that the European balance is supported by the following combinations, named in chronological order:

The Triple Alliance, the parties to which are Germany, Austro-Hungary, and Italy.

The Dual Alliance of Russia and France.

The Anglo-Japanese Alliance.

The Anglo-French "entente cordiale" (cordial understanding).

The Algeciras Treaty in regard to Morocco.

The Anglo-Russian understanding.

There are also in effect various partial and limited agreements and special treaties between France and Italy, France and Spain, Russia and Japan, Russia and Austria, Japan and China, and most, if not all of these, have an indirect bearing on the situation in Europe, even where they ostensibly and in terms have reference to interests in Asia or Africa. Space will not permit a consideration of these minor agreements and arrangements, and our attention must be directed to the above mentioned major factors.

To understand fully the existing alliances and groupings of the leading powers, it would be necessary to know much more than actually is known concerning the secret history of European diplomacy. In diplomacy language is still used quite as much to conceal as to express thought and there are, besides, many points in the origin, evolution, and real purposes of the alliances and understandings that have not been cleared up. In general, however, it is undoubtedly true that the present European situation and "balance" must be traced to the momentous Franco-Prussian war of 1870, the found-

ing of the German Empire as a direct consequence of the issue of that war, and the dangers which Italy, Russia, and England saw in those developments, as well as in their respective internal conditions.

The Triple Alliance was originally a dual alliance between Germany and Austro-Hungary. And that dual alliance at first had reference only to defensive operations in the event of an attack on either of the parties by Russia. It was negotiated by Bismarck in 1879, who explained it, according to his secretary, Busch, as follows: When we (Germany and Austria) are united with 2,000,000 soldiers back to back, the Russians with their nihilism will doubtless think twice before disturbing the peace." The terms of this treaty were not officially published until 1888, and in substance, they provided for these contingencies: If either of the allies should be attacked by Russia, the other must come to its aid with all its forces. If the attack should be made by any other power, the ally must merely observe perfect neutrality.

Italy joined the alliance in 1882, as a result of her dissatisfaction with the seizure of Tunis by France in the previous year. Italy herself had had her eyes on Tunis, and its annexation by the French, with the tacit consent of Germany, proved to be the cause of a long and unnatural estrangement between the two Latin nations. The terms of the treaty whereby the Triple Alliance was formed have never been authoritatively given to the world, but the general understanding is that the three powers reciprocally guaranteed the possession of their respective territories, agreed to resist attack on any one of them, and stipulated the amount of aid to be given by each in case of hostilities with France or Russia or both powers.

The Triple Alliance did not prevent Bismarck from concluding a secret treaty with Russia, which compact, when its existence had been revealed, led to an outcry and a denunciation of the Teutonic Chancellor for duplicity and bad faith. By that agreement, which lapsed with the fall of Bismarck, Germany and Russia bound themselves to observe

neutrality in case either of them should be attacked by a third power.

It is clear, then, that the object of these treaties was the preservation of peace and the prevention of "surprises" and aggressions. But the Triple Alliance initiated the great modern tendency toward the much-vaunted "equilibrium" of Europe. Its formation, in connection with other occurrences to be mentioned, caused France, Russia, and England great anxiety. It is even believed that in 1886 France and Russia tried to break up that combination by offering inducements to Italy to withdraw from it and seek territorial advantages at the expense of Austria.

If the policy of Russia, in the seventies of the last century was considered dangerous to the peace of Europe, so dangerous as to necessitate a powerful alliance, it is equally true that the policy of Germany under the Bismarck regime as Chancellor of the Empire, was considered full of danger to France, England, Russia, and the peace of the world generally. It is this danger which prompted France and Russia—the one a republic and the other an autocracy—to lay aside many differences, incompatibilities of temper and deep-seated suspicions and conclude a dual alliance. This latter alliance was also a somewhat gradual development.

The friendlier feelings between Russia and France at first manifested themselves in arrangements for placing Russian loans in Paris. The first of these loans was quietly negotiated in 1888. But among the decisive influences which finally brought about the complete understanding may be named what is known among diplomatic writers as "the affair of 1875."

France, by that time, had fully and marvelously recovered from the disaster of the "terrible year," 1870. She was again confident, prosperous, and strong. In the year named, she voted a large increase of her armed forces, while her politicians and newspapers were openly advocating preparations for the eventual reconquest of Alsace and Lorraine, the provinces she had lost to Germany. Her people

were not reconciled, as they are now, to what was called the dismemberment of France by the ruthless Bismarck. In order to prevent an attack or a war of revenge by France, the military party of Germany urged on the emperor to assume the offensive and by an immediate attack reduce France to impotence. Various hints, it appears, were thrown out by the Teutonic ambassadors to that effect, and great apprehension was excited. The Paris correspondent of the London Times, de Blowitz, was authorized, indeed asked by the French premier, to publish the facts. He did so, and produced a sensation in every European capital. The Tzar, to whom the French government dispatched a special envoy with documents, gave the latter assurance that he would interfere to prevent an unprovoked war on France. Oueen Victoria and the British government also evinced genuine concern and used their good offices to end the tension and the crisis. These efforts were successful and as already stated, the "scare" served to bring Russia and France together.

Visits of the two fleets were interchanged in 1891 and finally the Tzar overcame his distrust of republicanism and the alliance was concluded. The treaty embodying the terms of this alliance has never been published but, according to Mr. Henry Norman, M. P., author of "All the Russias," it provides that "if either nation is attacked, the other will come to its assistance with the whole of its forces, and that peace shall only be concluded in concert and by agreement between the two."

Both the Triple and Dual Alliances have been renewed a number of times and are in effect today, though, owing to various developments, their real significance has changed. The relations between Italy and France are again friendly and have been so since 1901, when "an understanding" was arrived at between them in regard to mutual interests in the Mediterranean Sea and in Africa. In 1903 a treaty of arbitration was signed by them, and the Italian statesmen frankly avowed that the considerations which had led their country

to enter into partnership with Germany and Austria had lost much of their weight. On the other hand, the relations of Germany and Russia have greatly improved; during the Russo-Japanese war Emperor William displayed considerable good-will toward the St. Petersburg government, and since then visits have been exchanged and cordial greetings rather ostentatiously published. The Emperor has called the Tzar "Admiral of the Pacific" while applying to himself the title "Admiral of the Atlantic." As to England, her whole situation has been changed, thanks to King Edward's diplomacy and tact, and thanks, too, to a realization that her foreign policy for some decades had been narrow and unsafe.

Early in 1902 a second dual alliance was formed—between England and Japan. The former had boasted of her "splendid isolation," referring to the lack of connection with either group of the great European powers. But she had secretly felt that the isolation was by no means as magnificent as it could be made to appear to the unsophisticated. There were troublesome questions in the near East, in the far East, in Egypt, and in Africa (to some of which we shall refer in our second article) which needed delicate handling. The war with the Transvaal Boers had aroused extreme bitterness against England in Continental Europe, and in Germany a press campaign of singular violence had been carried on, representing Great Britain as the natural enemy of the advancing Teutonic Empire. It was, therefore, a bold stroke to enter into an alliance with a yellow, Asiatic, non-Christian power. The announcement of the Anglo-Japanese agreement was received with amazement—in some quarters with scorn and contempt. But the event, all agree, has justified it, though of late there have been some hints from high British quarters that it may not be renewed upon its expiration, owing to the threatened revival of a serious anti-European propaganda in Asia.

The text of this treaty of alliance shows that the contracting powers had in view the maintenance of the inde-

pendence and integrity of China and Korea, the preservation of the "open door" (equality of commercial rights in the Far East), and the safeguarding of peace. Each party, however, recognized the special interests of the other in China or Korea, and proceeded to pledge itself as follows:

"If either Great Britain or Japan, in defence of their respective interests, should become involved in war with another power, the other high contracting party will maintain a strict neutrality, and use its efforts to prevent other powers from joining in hostilities against its ally. If, in the above event, any other power or powers should join in hostilities against that ally, the other high contracting party will come to its assistance, and will conduct the war in common, and make peace in mutual agreement with it."

It is this alliance which, according to general opinion, "localized" the Russo-Japanese War. But for it, France might have joined in the conflict over Manchuria and Korea, and had that happened, no one knows where the struggle would have ended.

Even the alliance with Japan, however, did not reassure the statesmen of England and there was profound satisfaction when, the wounds inflicted by the sympathy of continental Europe for the Boers having healed, it was found possible for England to come to a comprehensive understanding with France. The credit for this momentous agreement, comprising three distinct conventions and settling old and disturbing controversies, belongs to M. Delcassé, the then minister of foreign affairs in France, whose whole policy was enlightened and pacific (though Germany thought it was designated to "isolate" her and draw Italy, Spain, and England closer and closer to France), and to Lord Lansdowne, Britain's foreign minister under Salisbury and Balfour.

The conventions referred to dealt respectively (1) with West Africa and Newfoundland; (2) with Egypt and Morocco; and (3) with Spain, Madagascar, and the New Hebrides. Passing over the minor and perhaps too technical features of these treaties, it is sufficient to say that their chief importance lies in the recognition of French special and paramount interests in Morocco by England, and in

the reciprocal recognition by France of the status quo in Egypt. France had never before acknowledged the legitimacy of England's rule over Egypt and had, from time to time, reminded the London government of the explicit pledge of Gladstone to evacuate that country (still nominally subject to Turkey). The understanding put an end to all possible friction over the occupation and its consequences. On the other hand, England declared expressly that, as the master of Algeria and Tunis, France properly claimed the right to maintain order in Morocco and use her influence to improve the financial, administrative, and military position of that misgoverned country.

To the average man this Morocco feature of the agreement meant, simply, that so far as England is concerned, France might annex the Moorish kingdom and end the anarchical and dangerous conditions that are chronic there. This, however, was not the "correct official view," though Germany was disposed to side with the downright average man. The Emperor resented the pretensions of the French in Morocco, visited Tangiers in person, made a vigorous little speech to German residents, and asserted that he would defend their commercial interests as well as those of their fellow subjects at home. There had been no talk of injuring or discriminating against German interests in Morocco (other interests she did not claim) but the general comment on the visit and speech was that the Kaiser had intended to serve notice on England and France that he could not be ignored in any matter affecting the European balance or the disposition of territory in Africa, Asia, or elsewhere. For a time, all Europe was filled with apprehension—there was even talk of war. But all ended happily.

The Morocco question had become acute, and internal disorder tended to aggravate the difficulty. In order to relieve the situation, a conference of the powers was called at Algerias in 1906 for the ostensible purpose of definitely settling the status of Morocco and the relation of France, Spain, and the other nations thereto. All the leading powers,

including the United States, were represented at the conference and an agreement was reached after many delays. Germany at first refused to acknowledge the peculiar and paramount interest of France in Morocco, but at last she yielded. The Algeciras Treaty provided for better policing of the ports of Morocco under French and Spanish instructors and officers, for suppression of contraband in arms, for improved customs duties and sources of revenue, and for the "open door," or economic equality, for the powers trading in the kingdom.

As a matter of fact, as will be shown in a later paper, the conference only postponed the settlement of the ultimate Moroccan question. Germany gained nothing beyond this delay, and France lost nothing, because she was not ready, in any event, to become actually the master of that kingdom; she knew that the conditions were not right for a coup similar to that of the occupation of Tunis. She had other questions on her hands and was willing to wait as regards Morocco. But Germany's apparent aggressiveness alarmed Europe and was resented by Italy, her ally. It led to some pointed and plain remarks about the "hollowness" of the Triple Alliance, and Emperor William himself manifested his displeasure in a characteristic utterance which Italy construed as a charge of ingratitude and disloyalty against her. On the whole, the Moroccan incident is considered to have been a blunder, especially in view of its effect on the native rulers and the more fanatical tribesmen, who have threatened a "holy war" on all Europeans and Christians.

If, however, the Algerciras Treaty must be considered insincere and illusory from a "long run" point of view, more favorable judgment is distinctly invited by the Anglo-Russian understanding and treaty, in which, notwithstanding some criticisms, most diplomatic experts see a real triumph for peace and good-will, a long step toward permanent peace. That England and Russia could come together at all and find their interests to be by no means hopelessly in con-

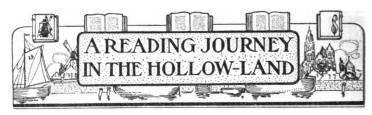
flict was a surprise to many. Which power made the larger concessions is an open and not very important question. But there is ground for hope that the provisional agreement will be in due time replaced by a permanent one.

The Anglo-Russian Convention, negotiated by Sir Edward Grey and M. Isvalski, the foreign ministers of the two "contracting parties," was signed in the fall of last year. It embraces three sets of questions—those relating to Persia, those relating to Afghanistan, and those relating to Tibet. In substance, the treaty gives England a "sphere of influence" and financial control in the south, and Russia a similar sphere in the north of Persia, a debt-ridden country that is nominally independent and supposed to be passing from an autocratic to a constitutional regime. As to Tibet, both parties agreed to respect China's suzerain rights over it and pledged themselves not to seek concessions and franchises in that mysterious land. Afghanistan, Russia declared to be outside her sphere and influence, and agreed to deal with it through British officials.

British India "breathed freely" again after the ratification of this treaty, for the "invasion of India" menace had been removed. The liberal-minded elements of both countries welcomed the treaty as a splendid achievement.

But it would be rash to assert that any one of the existing alliances or all of them can be regarded as an absolute pledge of peace. There are possibilities of friction and conflict in many directions. The really effective guaranties of amity and concord are moral and industrial. The occasional regrouping of the powers is to be expected; "understandings" will come and go; but education, national interest, the demand for great social reforms, the difficulty of financing needless wars,—these are a constantly increasing influence.

In another article we shall glance at the international problems that are still unsolved and that from time to time give rise to "incidents" and diplomatic excitement—problems whose solutions may involve momentous readjustment, political and territorial.



Part I. Its Origin.

By George Wharton Edwards

HE first inhabitants of Holland came from Germany, and adopted as their new home the island of Batavia, a long strip of land lying within the forked estuary of the Rhine. So brave a race were they that the body guards of the Roman Emperors were drawn from their ranks. It is said that Friesland and the northern districts were likewise peopled with these German migrants but they differed in national character and admitted no allegiance to the Romans, then paramount throughout northwest Europe, and became known as the free Frisians. Under Charlemagne's powerful rule (A. D. 800) the provinces, including what is now Belgium, were united. After the conquest of the Belgians, the Batavians became the allies of Rome: later on they disappeared. Fifty years later, by the treaty of Verdun, the country was divided. Batavia and Friesland were allotted to Germany, while Dukes and Counts each ruling, yet subject to the German Emperors, were appointed to the provinces which now became principalities. Trade routes were established to distant parts of the world; law rather than might made itself manifest in various charters from princes to people. At the end of the thirteenth century, the rulers are found presiding over the provincial estates, marking the beginning of constitutional government. At this period came the great inundation when the North Sea burst through the dunes and rolled in over the low lying lands, uniting with an inland lake. The ocean

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engulfed more than a thousand Frisian villages and formed the present Zuider Zee. Philip, Duke of Burgundy, surnamed "The Good," dispossessed his young cousin, Jacquelin, of her rightful heritage of Hainault, Zeeland, and North and South Holland. Soon after he acquired Luxemburg and assumed lordship over Friesland as a matter of course. He established at Bruges (1429) the Order of the Golden Fleece; in 1467 he was succeeded by his son, Charles the Bold, whose dominant object was to make his dukedom a kingdom. He ruined his country financially, and died ignominiously. His daughter, the Lady Mary, inherited the vast but impoverished realm. They lie buried side by side in magnificent gilded, enameled, and marble tombs in the Cathedral at Bruges.

Louis the XI. of France, another member of the Golden Fleece, earned the laurels of the order by seizing Burgundy. It was now that Lady Mary, to secure the loyal adhesion of her subjects, granted them "the Great Privilege," the magna charta of Holland. In 1493, her husband, the Archiduke Maximilian of Austria, inherited his father's throne. Notice the accretion of thrones and principalities. Maximilian's son, Philip the Fair, heir to enormous territory, married the Princess of Castile and Aragon, and thus added Spain to the family domain. Philip's son was Charles the Fifth, King of Spain, Emperor of Germany, Emperor of Austria, King of the Netherlands, Duke of Burgundy, and monarch practically of half the known world.

Under the Spanish rule, the inhabitants of Holland became restive and finally, forcibly resented its tyranny and robbery, following which Charles V. confiscated the Great Privilege and all municipal rights. The people demurred. Punishment swiftly followed, and Charles scourged the people into submission with rods of iron, and squandered their blood and treasure in European wars. He now sought to exterminate heresy by executions and failed. In 1555, wearied with wars and the cares of state, he abdicated in

favor of his son, Philip II., a gloomy monarch of fanatical tendencies, assassinator of William, Prince of Orange; the strongest maintainer of the Inquisition with its tens of thousands of slaughtered victims and the deliberate midnight murderer of his own son, Don Carlos. Holland's darkest hour was at hand. Motley vividly portrays the hell let loose upon the kingdom. With the assistance of his servile minister, Granville, the Inquisition did its work. The King retired to Spain but quartered his Spanish troops throughout the States, to the impoverishment and despair of the people. The King's sister, Margaret of Parma, was installed in the Netherlands as regent. At this distressful period, three champions of liberty, namely, William, Prince of Orange, Count Egmont, a brilliant general, and Count Horn, urged the King to redress the people's wrongs. They claimed (1) the withdrawal of the troops, (2) the removal of the inquisition, (3) the restoration of the people's right through the states' general to vote the sums of money demanded by the King. The King now retired both Margaret of Parma and Granville in favor of the Duke of Alva and the garrisons were doubled by an army sent from Spain to suppress the insurrection and root out the heretics. With callous brutality, Alva invited Egmont and Horn to a banquet; though urged by William of Orange to beware of treachery, they went, were seized by Alva's soldiers, and notwithstanding their rank and services to Philip, were ex-By beheading, hanging, burning, and torturing on the rack, the Duke of Alva put to death some one thousand persons while many thousands were driven out of the country. The insurrection then became a war of independence, under the leadership of William of Orange. Eventually, the Dutch Protestants were successful, and several of the provinces, renouncing their allegiance to Spain, proclaimed the Prince of Orange, Stadtholder, and by a treaty at Utrecht (1579) laid the foundation of the Dutch republic.

William the Silent, who is said to have earned the

"soubriquet" because he controlled himself and made no comment when Henry II., had arranged a general massacre of Protestants throughout France and the Netherlands, saved by his prudence at any rate for a time, the threatened disaster. He was Charles V.'s favorite ambassador. was born 1533 and died in 1584. Although a staunch Catholic and supporter of the King, William repeatedly protested to him against Alva's atrocities but without the slightest effect. The Council of Blood was now established. and incredible as it is now to believe, sentence of death was passed upon the whole of the inhabitants of the Netherlands. (February 16, 1568.) Philip confirmed the edict. and ordered its immediate execution. Thus Alva's victims could be executed without even the formality of a mock trial. (See Motley.) William of Orange now took active steps to oppose Alva, but too utterly cowed to assist, the Dutch populace remained passive while the Prince spent his own fortune on foreign troops. Despite the valor of his brothers Louis and John, defeats followed. The beggars of the sea, a body of nobles banded together to resist Alva, met with some success. Prince William's own States, Zeeland and Holland, on land alone, showed determination to resist. The massacre of St. Bartholomew only stimulated the desires of Philip and Alva. Cities whose inhabitants defied the Spaniards were besieged. Surrender on promise of mercy nearly always resulted in the inhabitants being put to the sword, as at Naarden and Haarlem. (See Motley.) The siege of Leiden, however, brought a sudden check to the Spaniards, for when the city was at its last gasp, William, from his fever stricken couch, ordered the cutting of the dykes, whereby the country was flooded. His fleet of war ships being in readiness, he sailed up to the very walls of the city. Through years of toil and privation Prince William held to his trust, the freeing of his country. Affectionately called Father William, he matched his intellect against the cleverest men of his age, and with his enthusiasm kept alive the waning spark of national patriotism. His is a solitary and splendid figure. When in 1581 the Holland States finally renounced their allegiance to Spain, Prince William was elected Stadtholder, after he had emphatically refused any higher title. On July 10, 1584, an obscure hireling of Philip II., tempted by the large reward offered by the King, gained access and secreted himself near the principal stairway of Prince William's house. Armed with a pistol, he fired several poisoned bullets at the Prince, two of which took effect.* Thus passed the spirit of this great man, his last words as he fell being a prayer, "God save this unhappy country." murderer was promptly executed, his flesh being torn from his body by hot pincers, but his parents, on claiming the blood money from Philip II., were at once exalted and granted patents of nobility. William's son, Maurice, was then elected Stadtholder, and ruled until 1625 amid a period of increasing prosperity. The republic grew and flourished in spite of the theological disputes which were rife, and in consequence of which the pensionary, John Van Oldenbarneveld, was put to death by Maurice. The war with Spain was vigorously carried on. The Dutch admirals, De Ruyter and Tromp, added immensely to the power and reputation of Holland. With commercial prosperity, the population rapidly increased; both on land and sea the Dutch defeated their former masters. The merchant fleets navigated the world and founded the Dutch colonies. On the death of Maurice, his brother, Frederick Henry (1645-1647), succeeded as Stadtholder and the prosperity of the country reached its zenith. The commerce of Holland was renowned the world over and the Dutch navigators, painters, and scientists, were in their full glory. By the peace of Westphalia, the great work of William the Silent was completed. Europe acknowledged the independence of the provinces and William II., son of Frederick, came to the throne, surviving his father by only a few years. In consequence of dissensions breaking out, John De Witt was

^{*}See Library Shelf in this magazine.

elected Grand Pensionary. In 1652, the first naval war with England was declared, in consequence of the navigation act passed by the English parliament which was intended to promote the navigation of Britain and to strike a blow at the naval power of the Dutch. Admirals Tromp and De Ruyter came to the fore and the English fleet suffered more than one heavy reverse. At the outbreak of the second war in 1664, De Ruyter succeeded in sailing up the river Thames as far as Chatham. Louis XIV. of France, cast covetous eyes on the Netherlands, alleging a right to them on behalf of his Spanish wife, Maria Theresa, but he was checkmated by the triple alliance, formed by John De Witt between England, Holland's quondam enemy, and Sweden and Holland to resist that very attack. De Witt, however, fell a victim to the vengeance of the people who accused him of harboring designs against the Stadtholder, William III, who was now at the head of the provinces. In 1672. England went to war with Holland again, and in the same vear the triple alliance having been dissolved, Louis of France took possession of certain of the Dutch provinces. and De Witt, with his brother, was killed by the infuriated Dutch mob at the Hague. The young Prince of Orange then became Stadtholder, and in 1688 was crowned William III, King of England. His cousin, Prince John William of Friesland, was elected President of the Republic and waged war with England against France. The war lasted for about eight years, terminating in the treaty of Utrecht, 1713. John's son, William IV., followed as Stadtholder and again war with England for naval supremacy ensued. In 1781, Holland lost most of her colonies and the French Republic took possession of Holland in 1795. The brother of Napoleon, Louis Bonaparte, was made king in 1805, and five vears later Bonaparte formally annexed Holland under the pretext that it was an alluvion of French rivers. Mention should be made of the memorable feat of the French general, Pichegru, in capturing the frozen up Dutch fleet by bringing his cavalry over the ice. The flight of the

Stadtholder, William V., to England brought into existence the Batavian Republic, which with R. J. Schimmelpennick as President acquired a brief notoriety. Louis Bonaparter as King of Holland, occupied the throne for five years, during which time Napoleon's "Continental System," recoding upon his own head, brought commercial ruin to Holland Louis resigned the crown in 1810 and Napoleon incorporated Holland with France. After his crushing defeat at Leipske the Dutch, with the help of Russia and Prussia, the alliest and England, swept the French over the border, and peach dawned again over the distressful country after Napoleon overthrow at Waterloo. The famous Lion Monument of the battlefield is erected over the spot where the Prince of Orange was wounded while leading his Nassau regiment to the charge.

The restoration of the House of Orange resulted in the acceptance of the crown (1813) by William, the son of the exiled Stadtholder, and in 1815, by the Vienna treaty, Belgium was added to the kingdom, and the Prince of Orange. under the title of William I. was crowned king of the Netherlands. Dissensions, the result of incompatibility, soon followed between the Dutch and the Belgians, the latter complaining of the assumption of supremacy by the Dutch and furthermore objecting to the compulsory use of Dutch language, replacing Flemish and the official French. Holland, being Protestant and loyally attached to the House of Orange, while Belgium too long subjugated to Spain and France, being anti-Orange and Roman Catholic, separation resulted. In 1830, the European powers, fearing further complications, prevailed upon Holland to accept the severance. After ten years of unrest, the King abdicated and William II. ruled over Holland with the Duchy of Luxemburg added under the Vienna treaty, from 1840 to 1849, when he was succeeded by William III. Princess Emma of Waldeck and Pyrmont (sister of the Duchess of Albany) and consort of William III, acted as regent at her husband's death and during the minority of her daughter, Wil-



The Emperor Charlemagne.

44 Reading Journey in the Hollow-Land



Philip the Good.



Maximilian I.



Martin Harpertzoon (1597-1653), famous Admira!.

Tromp Dutch



The Emperor Charles V.



Count of Hoorne (1520-1568).



Count Egmont (1522-1568).



R. J. Schimmelpennick, onetime President of the Batavian Republic.



The Late Prince Henry of Holland.





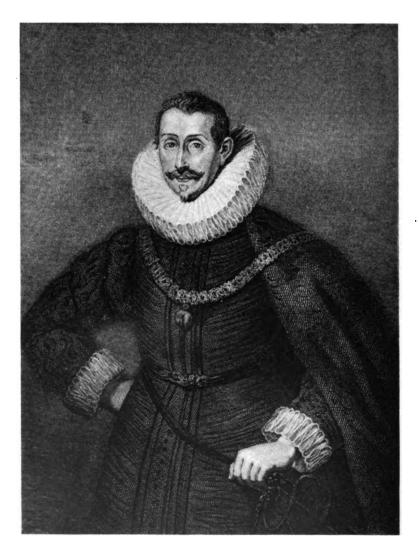
Philip 1



Alva (Fer

varez de Toledo, 1508-1582).

46 Reading Journey in the Hollow-Land



Philip II. of Spain.



The Duke of Alva (Fernando Alvarez de Toledo, 1508-1582).



William of Orange, known as William "The Silent."

Its Origin



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"Negotiations with Spain during the Twelve Years' Truce." (1609-1621). Allegorical and Satirical Painting (1614) by A. P. Van de Venne, in the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam. (The Catholics and Protestants are competing in

Its Origin

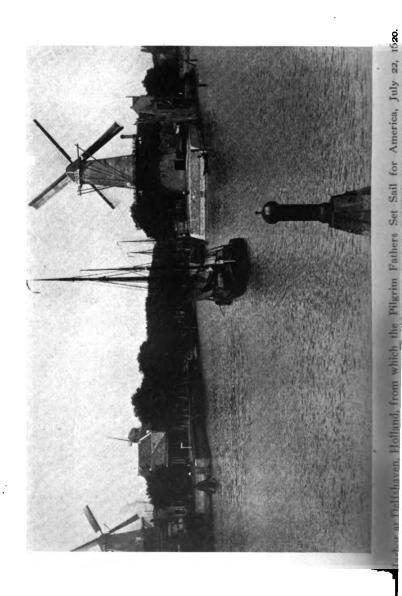


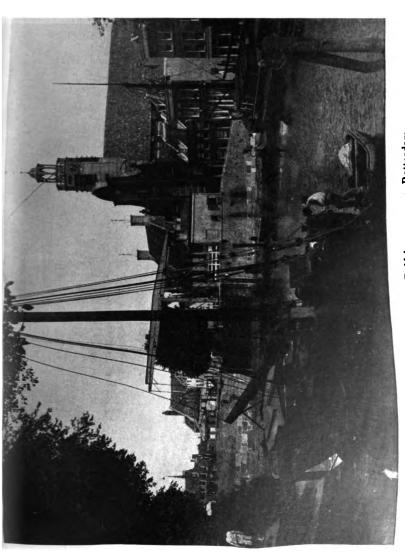


National Monument at The Hague, Commemorating the Dutch Independence Achieved in 1813.

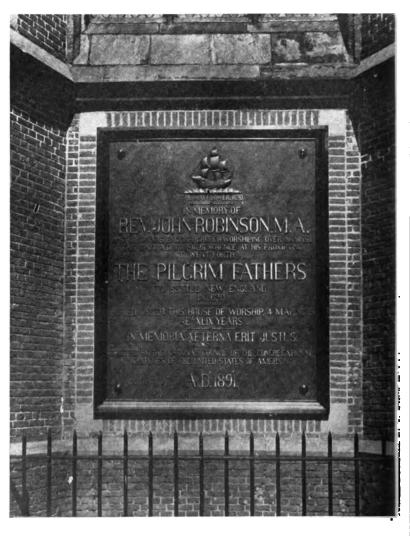


Queen Wilhelmina, the present Ruler of Holland.





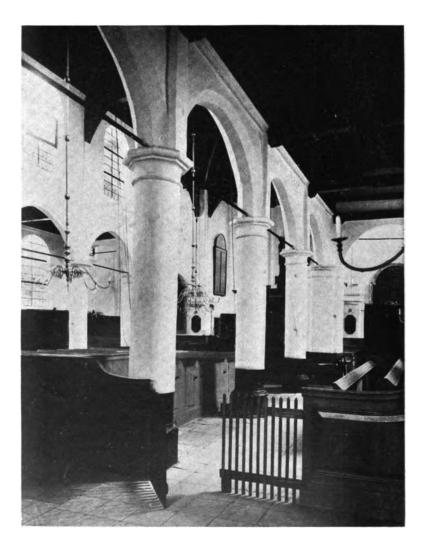
Harbor Scene and Church, Delfshaven, near Rotterdam.



Tablet to the Memory of the Rev. John Robinson, Pastor of the Pilgrim Fathers. In the Church at Leiden, unveiled July, 1891.



House at Leiden in which the Rev. John Robinson, who prompted the Pilgrim Fathers to settle New England, "Lived, Taught and Died"



Interior of Church, Delfshaven, where the Pilgrim Fathers held their last prayer meeting before sailing.

helmina. Her regency is held in affectionate remembrance by the people of Holland. Wilhelmina was born on August 31, 1880, and was crowned in 1898 amid the rejoicings of the entire nation. As Queen she received the homage due to her exalted rank but it is as Princess of Orange and in her lace cap as a Frieslander, descendant of that race of patriots who dedicated their fortunes and themselves to the salvation of Holland that she reigns in the hearts of her devoted subjects. In 1901 her Majesty was married to Henry. Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, on whom she was permitted to confer the title of Prince Henry of the Netherlands. One should note the fact that it was because of her exalted rank she was forced by the laws to propose marriage to the Duke. It has been both urged and denied that it was a love match but as a matter of fact, as far as one may judge, the attitude of the Hollander towards the consort is one of tolerance.

These historical details are really necessary to the proper understanding of the papers which follow as showing the origin of these remarkable people, and the great influence which they have wielded over civilization. Indeed it would surprise some readers to learn that the best of the laws of both Great Britain and America are derived from the Netherlands, and that the two great elements (see "The Puritan in Holland and America," by Douglas Campbell) which have contributed to make America what it is, are: one, the civilization of ancient Rome, with its genius for government and its instinct for justice and equal rights; the other, the strong wild blood of the Germanic race with its passion for individual freedom, which has given its nerve, strength, and energy to modern Europe. The first of these elements was utterly extinguished in England by the Anglo-Saxon conquest, while the feudal system, afterwards came in to rob the Germanic conquerors of many of their early ideas regarding civil liberty. One country alone, Holland, was largely free from this devastation and this blight. the civilization of Rome was never extinguished, and the

60 Reading Journey in the Hollow-Land

feudal system took but feeble root. The people preserved more purely than any others their Germanic ideas and institutions but engrafted on them the arts, the learning, and the laws derived from communication with civilized and civilizing Italy. To the patriot, to the lover of civil and religious liberty, as well to the student of art and science in any land, the history of this Republic and country, must always have a peculiar charm. But, apart from its general features, this history is so interwoven with that of England and America that anyone concerned with the past of either of these countries will find it a subject of unfailing interest. When modern Englishmen set out to write the history of their country, they cross the channel and describe the Angles and the Saxons in their early home upon the continent. That home was so near to the Netherlands that the people of Holland and the conquerors of Britain spoke substantially the same language, and were almost of one blood. To the Englishman, thinking only of the greatness of his own land, this original relationship may seem sufficient honor for a tiny fragment of the earth's surface not as large as Switzerland, but it is only the first chapter of the story. For hundreds of years in later times, and until long after the settlement of America, the Netherlands stood as the guide and instructor of England in almost everything which has made her materially great. When the Reformation came, in which northwestern Europe was new born, it was the Netherlands which led the van, and for eighty years waged the war which disenthralled the souls of men. Out of that conflict, shared by thousands of heroic Englishmen, but in which England as a nation hardly had a place, Puritanism was evolved—the Puritanism which gave its triumph to the Netherland Republic, and has shaped the character of the English-speaking race.

In time, England came to hate the benefactor to whom she owed so much; thus after the Restoration of the Stuarts, and still more after the Tory reaction which followed the Revolution of 1688, the political writers about the court habitually ridiculed the Dutchmen for virtues which they could not understand (see Roger's "Story of Holland").

The Republican Hollander deemed the attentions of king or noble to his wife or daughter a disgrace. courtiers about Charles II viewed this subject differently and regarded the Dutchman as ill-mannered for his want of taste. Added to this was the Hollander's respect for the private rights of all classes; his devotion to art and learning; his love of fair dealing in personal and in public matters; his industry, frugality; and, finally, his universal toleration. No one could deny the Dutchman's courage, for they were among the boldest soldiers and sailors that the world has ever seen; but they were not gentlemen from the aristocratic point of view. Sir William Temple, one of the most elegant and accomplished gentlemen, at the court of Charles II, being sent as ambassador to the Hague, related some of his experiences, among others the following, which illustrates the authority of woman in Holland. Dining one day with the chief burgomaster of Amsterdam and having a severe cold, he noticed that every time he spat on the floor while at table a tight handsome wench who stood in a corner holding a cloth, got down on her knees and wiped it up. Seeing this, he turned to his host and apologized for the trouble which he gave, receiving the jocular response, "It is well for you that my wife is not at home, for she would have turned you out of the house for soiling her floor, although you are the English ambassador." ("The Puritan in Holland, England and America," by Douglas Campbell.)

For art, for science, and deep scholarship, no other country could be compared with Holland in her palmy days. But Holland owed preëminence in these departments, not to an aristocracy, nor even to a monied class whose inherited wealth led them to abstain from business. The men who sustained her painters and musicians, who fostered science and broad learning, were the plain burghers, merchants, and manufacturers in the cities, men whom Queen Elizabeth called "base mechanics," who worked themselves,

and by example or by precept taught that labor alone is honorable.

James Geddes in his "John De Witt" relates an incident which will show how mathematics were cultivated in the Netherlands. In 1617, a young French soldier, serving in the Dutch army, was passing through the streets of Breda. A crowd was gathered on the corner and he pushed forward to learn the cause of the excitement. Its members were all studying a paper, posted on the wall, and talking about its contents. Not understanding the language, he asked a by-stander to translate it into French or Latin. The paper contained an abstruse mathematical problem. which in this way had been submitted to the public for solution. The soldier obtained his translation, went to his quarters, and a few days later sent in the correct answer, signed "Descartes." This was the introduction to the world of the greatest philosopher and mathematician of the age. whose transcendant ability was at once recognized in Holland.

The Hollander has ever been incorruptible. Never in war or peace, though Spain was lavish of promises and a master of corruption, was native Hollander bought with gold. When in 1608 the Spanish ambassadors were on their way to negotiate a treaty at the Hague, they saw eight or ten persons land from a little boat, and sitting down on the grass, make a meal of bread, cheese, and beer. "Who are these travelers?" said the Spaniards to the peasant. "They are the deputies from the State," he answered, "our sovereign lords and masters." "Then we must make peace," they cried; "these are not men to be conquered."

It was Holland, also, which carefully and wisely encouraged and maintained the freedom of trade, as may be seen from an incident which occurred so far back as the reign of Edward I of England. That monarch, in a letter addressed to Robert, Earl of Flanders, states that he has learned of an active intercourse carried on between the Scotch and the Flemings; and as the former had taken

part with Robert Bruce, who was in rebellion against him and excommunicated by the Pope, he begged that the Earl would put a stop to this intercourse and exclude the Scotch from his dominion. The Earl's answer was full of respect for the English king whom he desired to please, but he said frankly, as to the main question: "We must not conceal it from your Majesty that our country of Flanders is open to all the world, where every person finds a free admission. Nor can we take away this privilege from persons concerned in commerce without bringing ruin and destruction upon our country. If the Scotch go to our ports and our subjects go to theirs, it is neither the intention of ourselves or our subjects to encourage them in their error, but only to carry on our traffic without taking any part with them." This was always the policy of the Netherland States and the Dutch Republic.

In an article on Leiden University by Prof. W. T. Hewett in Harper's Magazine for March, 1881, Prof. Hewett himself, a student at this famous university, in common with every intelligent observer who has lived in Holland, was much struck with the similarity between the Dutch and the American modes of thought. He says, "The Dutch mind is more like the American in its method of thought than is that of any other nation of the continent. There is the same intensity of feeling on all religious questions, the same keen practical genius. The purpose of the Hollander is direct. The Hollander understands American and republican institutions, and their true foundations in the intelligence and self-control of the people. I have always felt sure of being understood when speaking with an educated Hollander, whether discussing church and state or our political questions. He could rightly estimate the real and unreal dangers which attend democratic governments, as our English cousins are not always in the habit of doing."

We view with just pride our charitable institutions, our soldiers' homes, our orphan asylums, and our great and mag-

64 Reading Journey in the Hollow-Land

nificently endowed hospitals, but we should not forget that in all this great and noble work, republican Holland set us the example three centuries ago.

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I. Frans Hals and the Portrait.

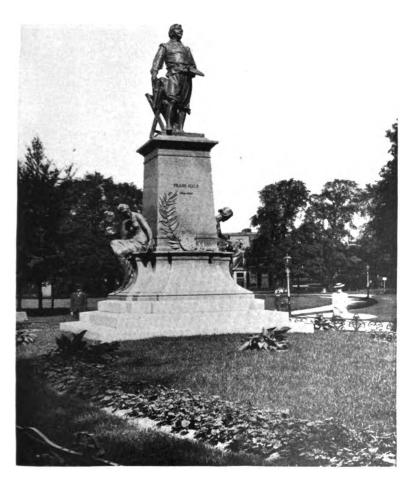
By George Breed Zug

Assistant Professor in the History of Art, University of Chicago. HEN compared with Italian painting and its numerous artists of the fourteenth, and even thirteenth century. Dutch painting seems distinctly modern. For it is not until the seventeenth century that we find a real, genuine Dutch art in the history of painting. Artists of Dutch birth had existed in the two preceding centuries, but they were, to judge from their few remaining works, not different from the artists of neighboring Flanders. All, Dutch and Flemish alike, seem to have been painting religious subjects, the Roman Catholic church has always been a liberal patron of artists,-in a miniature-like way, with very small strokes of the brush and a thin layer of paint, with great timidity in drawing the human body, and with an overabundance of details. But all of this changes rapidly after the Peace of Utrecht in 1579 with its religious and political freedom for the seven Northern Provinces. And now that Holland, a free and Protestant nation, was born, there could and did arise at once a national, a Dutch art wholly distinct from Flemish art. The Flemings are temperamentally inclined toward the French in sprightliness, and in imaginativeness, the Dutch, phlegmatic and serious, are more like the Ger-The Flemings remained Roman Catholic and continued to paint large altar pieces with a wealth of color and movement and invention. The Dutch, in whose churches such productions dared no longer find a place, derived their delight from the artistic treatment of themselves and their

daily life. And as a result no country has produced such a body of paintings showing in an intimate way the very life of its people at work and at play. Even the religious picture, so far as it remained became domesticated, became a part of the house furnishings. This seventeenth century Dutch school of painting is, after that of Italy, the greatest of history. For more than a generation before Frans Hals there were scores of distinguished artists working successfully in the various cities of Holland. Some historians of art history treat the subject of Dutch painting by cities. There seems, however, a special advantage in discussing the paintings of this period by subjects treating the portrait as represented by Hals and his contemporaries, then the painters of domestic scenes, of landscapes, and of animals. This plan will be followed in this series of articles.

A portrait painter of today is inclined to assert that portrait painting is the most difficult of the arts. Whereas each branch of art is difficult for the conscientious artist, let us see what are the special problems of the portraitist. Of course the artist's aim is always to create something beautiful, therefore a painter of madonnas and saints, as well as the painter of domestic scenes and of animals, must so select and arrange his materials that the result will be a harmonious and beautiful unity. The great Italians brought this unity about chiefly by line and pattern, the Dutch painters chiefly by light and by shade. A portrait then should not only represent the outline of the person's features, but the head, the body, the arms, and the legs should be so arranged within the limits of the frame that beauty results.

The earlier portraitists in Italy and in the Low Countries made their problem as simple as possible. At first they introduced only the head and shoulders. Later they added the hands as an aid in the interpretation of character. Whole generations later they turned the head or the body to give variety, and, lastly they introduced accessories which threw, as it were, a sidelight on the character of the sitter by suggesting his occupation. The merchant, pen in hand, sits



Statue of Frans Hals (1584-1666), in Haarlem.

before his ledger; the tailor with his shears is about to cut the cloth spread out on his table; the money lender has his scales and his money bags beside him.

Paul Moreelse, the painter of the beautiful little princess of our frontispiece, is taken as representative of the host of distinguished portraitists who came just before Hals. Moreelse was born in Utrecht in 1571; he was a pupil of Mierevelt of Delft, but after his apprenticeship he returned to his native city where he was busily occupied the rest of his life. His princess is typical of the precise workmanship of the best masters of the period. A word may here be said as to the way in which these masters look at their subjects. When about to paint a portrait they select and arrange their material as all artists must, but they seem to let their eyes wander from head to foot of the sitter in order to then reproduce each detail with utmost precision. What could be better than the careful rendering of the lace collar and cuffs, and the gold chain of the princess? kind of painting nothing could be more skilful. It was in this sort of painting that that greater master of Germany, Hans Holbein, expressed his way of seeing nature. But this multiplication of detail is as primitive a way of representing a person as the careful drawing of ten thousand leaves is a primitive way of representing foliage. For ten thousand leaves do not necessarily make a tree. These early painters painted not according to appearances but according to knowledge. Moreelse by careful observation was able to see all these details of costume one at a time and to reproduce them all together. When we look at a person, however, we are not conscious of all the buttons on a dress or all the links in a chain; we look at the face, and such details of costume are all but lost in the corner of the eve.

Frans Hals was perhaps the first painter who painted not according to the way he knew that the sitter looked, but in the way he appeared to the eye and to the mind. Better than anyone before him he treated his portraits in a large way. He left out small distracting details and focussed



"The Laughing Cavalier." By Frans Hals. In the Wallace Collection, London.

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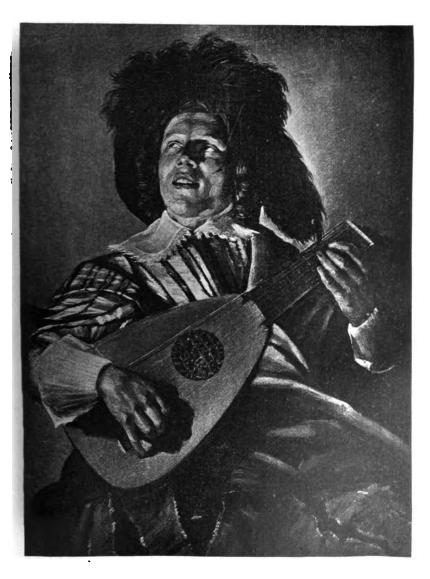
"Nurse and Child." By Frans Hals. In the Berlin Museum. Courtesy of the Berlin Photographic Co., New York.



"The Gipsy Girl." By Frans Hals. In the Louvre. Courtesy of the Berlin Photographic Co., New York.



"Portrait of a Man." By Frans Hals. In the Collection of Mr. Charles L. Hutchinson, Chicago.



"The Serenade." By Judith Leyster. In the Six Collection, Amsterdam.







"The Drinker." By Judith Leyster. In the Rijks Museum, Am-TI-A sterdam.

attention on the face and the pose of his subject. This new, "broad" manner of seeing was, then, carried further by Rembrandt and the great Spanish painter, Velasquez. But Hals deserves the credit of first discovering and applying it to portraiture. Hals is often called the first of the moderns, for many of the leading artists of today paint in this "broad" manner. Hals' way of painting differs also from that of his predecessors. They put on the paint with such delicate care that the surface is smooth and somewhat lacking in expression. You cannot see the brush strokes of Moreelse or of Holbein. Hals, on the other hand, puts the paint on the canvas in broad and lengthy strokes which looked at near at hand seem confusing, but which are effective at a distance. It is in just this mastery of the brush that Hals has never had a superior. As Mr. Kenyon Cox* suggests it is not merely the length and breadth of Hals' brush strokes which is remarkable, it is his skill and precision in making them of just such size and shape, of just such color and tone that when you stand away from his canvas you get the very impression of nature, the texture of lace or of satin, of skin or of hair, and this with a lifelikeness which is unexcelled.

This lifelikeness is important in a portrait. How many figures in pictures which we see seem posed and stiff, and without life. But the people in the pictures by Hals seem to be caught in the act of living. They are animated, breathing beings. There is a vitality about the people who look out of his paintings. Another point to be observed in portraits is the composition,—how much of the figure is placed upon the canvas and how well it occupies its place. It is also to be noticed whether the artist has succeeded in producing a personality with an individual character, and whether he has made eyes, mouth, hands, dress and accessories interpret the character of his subject.

Frans Hals was born of Dutch parents in Antwerp about 1580. He probably received only an elementary education

^{*}Essay on Hals in "Old Masters and New."

in that city, for early in his life his parents removed to Haarlem where the boy Frans was placed in the art academy of Van Mander. Mr. Davies in his book on Hals, hazards some clever guesses as to the early training of our master, but the fact is that we know nothing certainly of the beginnings of his career. There is next to nothing to be learned either from manuscripts or pictures until the year 1616, the date of his first important picture, the banquet of the Saint Joris (Saint George) Shooting Guild. This painting proclaims its author to be a past master of the art of painting. We cannot, therefore, trace the beginning of his style in early works which resemble those of his master, as we can do, for instance, with Raphael and his master Perugino. But from 1616 until 1664, the date of his latest pictures, Hals seems to have been busily occupied in his profession, and at times an officer in certain associations. These two facts offer a sufficient refutation of the charge that Hals was an habitual drunkard, a mere sot. Surely two things which were necessary to the production of his works were clearness of vision and sureness of hand, and these could not be retained by an habitual drunkard. Hals may not always have lived wisely for he spent his last days in poverty, receiving a pittance from the city, and died in 1664. But although his poverty may have been in part of his own causing, it was not entirely so; for his art was too good for his time; masterly as it was it seems not to have been popular from the year 1645 onward.

The portrait of the officer, commonly called "The Laughing Cavalier," which is here reproduced, was apparently painted about 1624 when the master was at the height of his success. The careful painting of the lace ruff, the precision in the rendering of the details of the clothing, together with the lack of atmospheric effect show that the picture is comparatively early in the artist's career, and before he attained the broad manner of seeing and of rendering which mark his later art. Though the color is not strong, the embroidery being in low-toned orange-yellow

on a blue-grey cloth, it leaves a memory of brighter color. This no doubt is partly due to the want of atmosphere. These remarks are not intended to lessen the enjoyment of the beauty of the work, but only to place it in the master's career, for what could be better as an interpretation! How abounding in life is this healthy young officer, how expressive is his pose, and how bewitching his smile!

Another painting which shows his skill in catching the passing mood of his subject is the "Nurse and Child." The proud look of the peasant nurse, the transparent shadows on her face, and the skilful placing of her figure behind that of her charge are all as happy in their way as the pleased expression of the child, and the delicate painting of her cap, collar, and stomacher. The loving care displayed in the painting of this lace and of the golden olive brocade of the child's dress is again characteristic of Hals' early period.

Slightly broader in treatment but of about the same period is the painting of "The Gipsy Girl." Here the artist transfers to canvas not the suggestion of a smile, but the smile itself,—one is almost tempted to say the laugh. With this gay mood, the white linen, the salmon of the bodice, and the rosy tints of the face are in perfect accord. This delightful picture is one of the best of a whole group for which Hals is famous; pictures which might be called portrait studies or fancy portraits, in which he interprets the gay spirits of laughing girls, of fish-wives, of jesters, and of tipplers. Such paintings border closely on genre paintings (paintings of domestic scenes), and yet they remain portraits. They seem also to be sympathetic subjects to the rollicking, happy-go-lucky temperament of the jovial Hals.

But Hals does not confine himself to the painting of mere externals and the interpretation of passing moods. Though it must be acknowledged that he does not sound the depths of character in the profound manner of Rembrandt, still he has left some portraits of men and of women in serious-mood, portraits which seem to reflect the better and deeper side of his subject's character. Some of these are life-size, while others are only a few inches in height, like the little Portrait of a Man owned by Mr. Charles L. Hutchinson. This man may not be a philosopher, he may not be a searcher of souls, but he is adequately represented in serious mood. Here may be seen some of our painter's best qualities; his broad manner even in small compass, a vital pose, and his skill in catching a likeness. One often doubts whether the people in Rembrandt's portraits really looked as they are represented. It is known that Rembrandt frequently dressed his sitters in strange costume and adapted their features according to his fancy. Not so with Hals; he is always a realist, he seems always to represent the very man in his habit as he lived.

In order to understand the dash and brilliancy of Hals as a painter of single portraits, one need only study his works in several public and private galleries in America; but to appreciate him as the master of large portrait groups; to understand him at his full worth one must cross the ocean and visit Haarlem. The Museum of that city possesses eight large pictures, of which five represent gatherings of the great shooting guilds, while three represent the governing bodies of public charities. The figures in these groups are all life-size and range in number from five to nineteen. These large canvasses varying in length from eight to thirteen feet, well lighted and placed at a convenient height for study, represent almost fifty years of the artist's activity. Arranged as they are in chronological order one can compare the ruddy color and sharp outlines of this first picture of 1616 with the broader treatment and blending tones of the later canvasses. Nor are these great groups mere transcripts of nature, but works of art abounding in the astonishing skill and mastery of one of the greatest of painters. These shooting companies were bodies of citizens associated for purposes of defence, a kind of militia, which did excellent service in the last forty years of the war with Spain. They frequently marched out together, they as frequently dined

thoroughly and well, and what is of particular interest today, the officers sometimes had their pictures painted in life-sized groups and placed in their halls of meeting. It seems that such corporation pieces were not paid for from the general fund but from the individual purse. Hence, each having paid his share, each expected equal representation. How skilfully Hals met this requirement in the arrangement of his groups! While he places each head where it can be seen plainly he arranges the whole so naturally that the spectator catches at once something of the allpervading spirit of the good time.

In the Saint Joris group of 1627, here reproduced, he has placed two seated figures forming a group with a standing figure at the left, and has connected this with the larger group at the right by means of the ensign wth the folded flag. Here Hals has reached his accomplished style. The white ruffs, the sashes of tawny orange, red, or blue, and the fresh complexions of the men form a harmony indeed. Here too is masterly painting of black stuffs, and an atmospheric effect that aids the impression of reality. In the "Officers of Saint Adriaen's Guild," 1633, there is still more gorgeous painting of the sashes, still broader handling, and better feeling for form. Here, as always, Hals paints the hands admirably, hands which help to interpret the sitter.

Hals then, to repeat, was one of the first to paint so broadly as to give the very impression of nature. He defines form by masses of color rather than by lines, with a mastery of brush that has not been excelled, and he is one of the great colorists of the Dutch school. He excels also in such minor matters as the painting of rich blacks, in expressive gestures, and life-like poses. He has well been called the "Laureate of Laughter." As Mr. Davis says, Hals excels in depicting such obvious emotions as those "of laughter, amusement, surprise, conceit and swagger." He is not such a soul-searching portraitist as was Rembrandt, but a painter of the passing mood. For the dash-

ing portrait of external impression by means of an equally dashing technique, Hals remains unexcelled

A story is told of a visit paid to Hals by Van Dyck. The latter was then twenty-two, Hals nineteen years his senior. As a pleasantry Van Dyck suppressed his name, announcing himself as a wealthy stranger who wished to sit for his portrait, but who had only a couple of hours to spare. Hals fell to with his usual impetuosity, and completed a portrait for the sitter's inspection in even less than the limited time, much to the satisfaction of the latter, who expressed an astonishment not altogether feigned at the speed of its execution. "Surely," said he, "painting is an easier thing than I thought. Suppose we change places and see what I can do." The exchange was made. Hals instantly detected that the person before him was no stranger to the brush. He speculated in vain as to who he might be. But when the second portrait was finished in still less time than in the first, the mystery was solved. Rushing to his guest, he clasped him in a fraternal embrace. "The man who can do that," he cried, "must be either Van Dyck or the devil!"-(From Timothy Cole's "Old Dutch and Flemish Masters.")

Of all his followers the one who came nearest to him in method and in spirit was a woman who has been called the most gifted woman painter of the whole Dutch school,—Judith Leyster. She has been recently recalled from oblivion by the researches of Hofstede de Groot. No documentary evidence of her ever having been Hals' pupil has yet been discovered, yet until 1893 her works were bought and sold as those of Hals. Her signature, a combination of the letter J and a star,—Leyster meaning lode-star, had been mistaken for Hals' cypher. She is known to have lived from about 1600-1660 at Haarlem and at Amsterdam. In the former city she was admitted to membership in the Guild of Saint Luke in 1633, and in 1638 she married the artist Jan Miense Molenaer. Her earliest known work is "The Drinker," dated 1629. It seems no great wonder that it

was long mistaken for a Hals, so much in his spirit was the young man transferred to the canvas, but the colors are brighter and not blended as fully as with Hals. "The Drinker," who smiles happily out at the beholder, is clad in a grey coat with red corded seams, and a black hat from which hangs a long red plume. A picture very similar to this one of the Rijks Museum in Amsterdam is now in the Kaiser Friedrich Museum at Berlin, but it is not so big in feeling nor in treatment. In "The Serenade" of the Six Gallery at Amsterdam the color scheme is still brighter and the use of light and shade is more pronounced. The doublet is black and green with white slashes, the trunk-hose red and black, and the mantle grey. Although akin to Hals in certain of his moods she developed a style of her own, so that she was not only twice celebrated in the rhyming chronicles of Haarlem in the first half of the seventeenth century, but a critic of today has said of her that she is "one of the few women who have done a man's work."

GENERAL BIBLIOGRAPHY WITH SPECIAL REFERENCES ALSO ON HALS.

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ARMSTRONG, SIR WALTER. The Peel Collection and the Dutch School of Painting. Illustrated. \$2.00 net. One of the best books

of criticism for Dutch landscape and genre painting.

KUGLER. German, Flemish, and Dutch Schools of Painting. Sir J. A. Crowe, Editor. 2 vols. \$0.00. Murray, 1808. For many years a standard art history now antiquated but useful for its general classifications. The two best books in French and German are: Havard, Henry: Histoire de la Peinture Hollandaise; and Phillippe, A.: Die Blüte de Malerei in Holland.

Excellent art criticism will be found in the following:

Cox, Kenyon. Old Masters and New. \$1.50. Also illustrated

edition, \$2.50.

FROMENTIN, E. The Old Masters of Belgium and Holland. Paris, 1902. "Has done more than any other book to teach the intelligent public of Europe and America what the art of painting really means."—G. Baldwin Brown.

VAN DYKE, JOHN C. Old Dutch and Flemish Masters engraved by Timothy Cole. Good essays on Hals and others.

DAVIES, GERALD. S. Frans Hals (Great masters in painting

and sculpture series). 1904. Small edition \$1.75. This is the best life of Hals.

DAVIES, GERALD S. Frans Hals. 1902. Large edition with

added text and illustrations. \$14.

In the Metropolitan Museum New York, Museum of Fine Arts, Boston, and Art Institute, Chicago, may be seen original examples of the work of Hals.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

It is essential in the study of art to use illustrations. The prints published by The Bureau of University Travel, Trinity Place, Boston, afford a cheap method of illustration. There are 170 small prints of Dutch paintings. Price 80 cents per hundred. No text

accompanies these prints.

The monthly publication entitled Masters in Art is also recommended. Each number contains ten plates with comments by well known critics and bibliography. The following Dutch painters have been treated: Rembrandt, Frans Hals, Ter Borch, Pieter de Hooch, Paul Potter, Gerard Dou, Vermeer of Delft, Jan Steen, Metsu, Ruisdael. Price 20 cents each. Address Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, N. Y.

REVIEW AND SEARCH QUESTIONS UPON THE REQUIRED READINGS WILL BE FOUND IN THE ROUND TABLE SECTION AT THE BACK OF THIS MAGAZINE.

(End of October Required Reading, pages 18-84.)



Assassination of William the Silent

[The following excerpts, taken from Motley's "Rise of the Dutch Republic," afford a graphic picture of the murder of William the Silent, Prince of Orange, in 1584. Balthazar, the murderer, had for seven years planned the murder of the Prince, prompted to his deed by large offers of reward from the Spaniards. How he accomplished his purpose is here set forth, together with a careful character study of the great man who freed Holland from the foreign yoke, William of Orange, one of the greatest patriots of history.]

It was Sunday morning and the bells were tolling for church. Upon leaving the house he [Balthazar] loitered about the courtyard, furtively examining the premises, so that a sergeant of halberdiers asked him why he was waiting there. Balthazar meekly replied that he was desirous of attending divine worship in the church opposite, but added, pointing to his shabby and travel-stained attire, that, without at least a new pair of shoes and stockings, he was unfit to join the congregation. Insignificant as ever, the small, pious, dusty stranger excited no suspicion in the mind of the good natured sergeant. He forthwith spoke of the wants of Gérard to an officer, by whom they were communicated to Orange himself, and the Prince instantly ordered a sum of money to be given him. Thus Balthazar obtained from William's charity what Parma's thrift had denied-a fund for carrying out his purpose!

Next morning, with the money thus procured he purchased a pair of pistols, or small carabines, from a soldier, chaffering long about the price because the vender could not supply a particular kind of chopped bullets or slugs which he desired. Before the sunset of the following day that soldier had stabbed himself to the heart, and died despairing, on hearing for what purpose the pistols had been bought.

On Tuesday, the 10th of July, 1584, at about half-past twelve, the Prince, with his wife on his arm, and followed by the ladies and gentlemen of his family, was going to the dining room. William the Silent was dressed upon that day, according to his usual custom, in very plain fashion. wore a wide-leaved, loosely-shaped hat of dark felt, with a silken cord round the crown—such as had been worn by the Beggars in the early days of the revolt. A high ruff encircled his neck, from which also depended one of the Beggar's medals, with the motto, "Fidèles au roy jusqu'a la besace," while a loose surcoat of grey frieze cloth, over a tawny leather doublet, with wide, slashed underclothes completed his costume. Gérard presented himself at the doorway and demanded a passport. The Princess, struck with the pale and agitated countenance of the man, anxiously questioned her husband concerning the stranger. The Prince carelessly observed that "it was merely a person who came for a passport," ordering, at the same time, a secretary forthwith to prepare one. The Princess, still not relieved. observed in an undertone that "she had never seen so villainous a countenance." Orange, however, not at all impressed with the appearance of Gérard, conducted himself at table with his usual cheerfulness, conversing much with the burgomaster of Leewarden, the only guest present at the family dinner, concerning the political and religious aspects of Friesland. At two o'clock the company rose from the table. The Prince led the way, intending to pass to his private apartments above. The dining-room, which was on the ground floor, opened into a little square vestibule, which communicated, through an arched passageway, with the main entrance into the court-yard. This vestibule was also directly at the foot of the wooden staircase leading to the next floor, and was scarcely six feet in width. Upon its left side, as one approached the stairway, was an obscure arch, sunk deep in the wall and completely in the shadow of the door. Behind this arch a portal opened to the narrow lane at the side of the house. The stairs themselves were completely lighted by a large window, half way up the flight. The Prince came from the dining room, and began leisurely to ascend. He had only reached the second stair when a man emerged from the sunken arch, and, standing within a foot or two of him, discharged a pistol full at his heart. Three balls entered the body, one of which, passing quite through him, struck with violence against the wall beyond. The Prince exclaimed in French, as he felt the wound, "O my God, have mercy upon my soul! O my God, have mercy upon this poor people!"

These were the last words he ever spoke, save that when his sister, Catherine of Schwartzburg, immediately afterwards asked him if he commended his soul to Jesus Christ, he faintly answered "Yes." His master of the horse, Jacob van Maldere, had caught him in his arms as the fatal shot was fired. The Prince was then placed on the stairs for an instant, when he immediately began to swoon. He was afterward laid upon a couch in the dining room, where in a few minutes he breathed his last in the arms of his wife and sister.

The murderer succeeded in making his escape through the side door, and sped swiftly up the narrow lane. had almost reached the ramparts, from which he intended to spring into the moat, when he stumbled over a heap of rubbish. As he rose, he was seized by several pages and halberdiers, who had pursued him from the house. He had dropped his pistols upon the spot where he had committed the crime, and upon his person were found a couple of bladders provided with a piece of pipe with which he had intended to assist himself across the moat, beyond which a horse was waiting for him. He made no effort to deny his identity, but boldly avowed himself and his deed. He was brought back to the house, where he immediately underwent a preliminary examination before the city magistrates. He was afterwards subjected to excruciating tortures; for the fury against the wretch who had destroyed the Father of the country was uncontrollable, and William the Silent was no longer alive to intercede,—as he had often done before—in behalf of those who had assailed his life.

The organization of Balthazar Gérard would furnish a subject of profound study, both for the physiologist and the metaphysician. Neither wholly a fanatic, nor entirely a ruffian, he combined the most dangerous elements of both characters. In his puny body the mean exterior enclosed considerable mental powers and accomplishments, a daring ambition, and a courage almost superhuman. Yet those qualities led him only to form upon the threshold of life a deliberate determination to achieve greatness by the assassin's trade. The rewards held out by the Ban, combining with his religious bigotry and his passion for distinction, fixed all his energies with patient concentration upon the one great purpose for which he seemed to have been born, and after seven years' preparation, he had at last fulfilled his design.

Upon being interrogated by the magistrate, he manifested neither despair nor contrition, but rather a quiet exultation. "Like David," he said, "he had slain Goliath of Gath." When falsely informed that his victim was not dead. he showed no credulity or disappointment. He had discharged three poisoned balls into the Prince's stomach, and he knew that death must have already ensued. He expressed regret, however, that the resistance of the halberdiers had prevented him from using his second pistol, and avowed that if he were a thousand leagues away he would return in order to do the deed again, if possible. He deliberately wrote a detailed confession of his crime, and of the motives and manner of its commission, taking care, however, not to implicate Parma in the transaction. After sustaining day after day the most horrible tortures, he subsequently related his interviews with Assonleville and with the president of the Iesuit college at Tréves, adding that he had been influenced in his work by the assurance of obtaining the rewards promised by the Ban. During the intervals of repose from the rack he conversed with ease, and even eloquence, answering all questions addressd to him with apparent sincerity. His constancy in suffering so astonished his judges that they believed him supported by witchcraft. "Ecce homo!" he exclaimed from time to time, with insane blasphemy, as he raised his blood-streaming head from the bench. In order to destroy the charm which seemed to render him insensible to pain, they sent for the shirt of a hospital patient supposed to be a sorcerer. When clothed in this garment, however. Balthazar was none the less superior to the arts of the tormentors, enduring all their inflictions, according to an eye-witness, "without once exclaiming, Ah me!" and avowing that he would repeat his enterprise, if possible, were he to die a thousand deaths in consequence. Some of those present refused to believe that he was a man at all. Others asked him how long since he had sold himself to the Devil? to which he replied, mildly, that he had no acquaintance whatever with the Devil. He thanked the judges politely for the food which he received in prison and promised to recompense them for the favor. Upon being asked how that was possible, he replied, that he would serve as their advocate in Paradise.

The sentence pronounced again the assassin was execrable—a crime against the memory of the great man whom it professed to avenge. It was decreed that the right hand of Gérard should be burned off with a red-hot iron, that his flesh should be torn from his bones with pinchers in six different places, that he should be quartered and disemboweled alive, that his heart should be torn from his bosom and flung in his face, and, that, finally, his head should be taken off. Not even this horrible crime, with its endless consequences, nor the natural frenzy of indignation which it had excited, could justify this savage decree, to rebuke which the murdered hero might almost have risen from the sleep of death. The sentence was literally executed on the 14th of July, the criminal supporting its horrors with the same astonishing fortitude. So calm were his nerves, crippled and half roasted as he was ere he mounted the scaffold, that when

one of the executioners was slightly injured in the ear by the flying from the handle of the hammer with which he was breaking the fatal pistol in pieces, as the first step in the execution—a circumstance which produced a general laugh in the crowd—a smile was observed upon Balthazar's face in sympathy with the general hilarity. His lips were seen to move up to the moment when his heart was thrown in his face—"Then," said a looker-on "he gave up the ghost."

The reward promised by Philip to the man who should murder Orange was paid to the heirs of Gérard. Parma informed his sovereign that the "poor man" had been executed, but that his father and mother were still living, to whom he recommended the payment of that "merced" which "the laudable and generous deed had so well deserved." This was accordingly done, and the excellent parents, ennobled and enriched by the crime of their son, received instead of the twenty-five thousand crowns promised in the Ban, the three seignories of Lievremont, Hostal, and Dampmartin, in the Franche Comté, and took their place at once among the landed aristocracy. Thus the bounty of the Prince had furnished the weapon by which his life was destroyed, and his estates supplied the fund out of which the assassin's family received the price of blood. At a later day, when the unfortunate eldest son of Orange returned from Spain after twenty-seven years' absence, a changeling and a Spaniard, the restoration of those very estates was offered to him by Philip the Second, provided he would continue to pay a fixed proportion of their rents to the family of his father's murderer. The education which Philip William had received, under the King's auspices, had, however, not entirely destroyed all his human feelings, and he rejected the proposal with scorn. The estates remained with the Gérard family, and the patents of nobility which they had received were used to justify their exemption from certain taxes, until the union of Franche Comté, with France.

when a French governor tore the documents in pieces and trampled them under foot.

Characteristics of the Prince of Orange

In person, Orange was above the middle height, perfectly well made and sinewy, but rather spare than stout. His eyes, hair, beard, and complexion were brown. head was small, symmetrically-shaped, combining the alertness and compactness characteristic of the soldier, with the capacious brow furrowed prematurely with the horizontal lines of thought, denoting the statesman and the sage. His physical appearance was, therefore, in harmony with his organization which was of antique model. Of his moral qualities, the most prominent was his piety. He was more than anything else a religious man. From his trust in God. he ever derived support and consolation in the darkest hours. Implicitly relying upon Almighty wisdom and goodness, he looked danger in the face with a constant smile, and endured incessant labors and trials with a serenity which seemed more than human. While, however, his soul was full of piety, it was tolerant of error. Sincerely and deliberately himself a convert to the Reformed Church, he was ready to extend freedom of worship to Catholics on the one hand, and to Anabaptists on the other, for no man ever felt more keenly than he, that the Reformer who becomes in his turn a bigot is doubly odious.

His firmness was allied to his piety. His constancy in bearing the whole weight of a struggle as unequal as men have ever undertaken, was the theme of admiration even to his enemies. The rock in the ocean, "tranquil amid raging billows," was the favorite emblem by which his friends expressed their sense of his firmness. From the time when, as a hostage in France, he first discovered the plan of Philip to plant the Inquisition in the Netherlands, up to the last moment of his life, he never faltered in his determination to resist that iniquitous scheme. This resistance was the labor of his life. To exclude the Inquisition, to maintain

the ancient liberties of his country, was the task which he appointed to himself when a youth of three-and-twenty. Never speaking a word concerning a heavenly mission, never deluding himself or others with the usual phraseology of enthusiasts, he accomplished the task, through danger, amid toils and with sacrifices such as few men have ever been able to make on their country's altar;-for the disinterested benevolence of the man was as prominent as his fortitude. A prince of high rank and with royal revenues, he stripped himself of station, wealth, almost at times of the common necessaries of life, and became, in his country's cause, nearly a beggar as well as an outlaw. Nor was he forced into his career by an accidental impulse from which there was no recovery. Retreat was ever open to him. Not only pardon but advancement was urged upon him again and again. Officially and privately, directly and circuitously, his confiscated estates, together with indefinite and boundless favors in addition, were offered to him on every great ogcasion. On the arrival of Don John, at the Breda negotiations, at the Cologne conferences, we have seen how calmly these offers were waved aside, as if their rejection was so simple that it hardly required many words for its signification, yet he had mortgaged his estates so deeply that his heirs hesitated at accepting their inheritance, for fear it should involve them in debt.

It is difficult to find any other characteristic deserving of grave censure, but his enemies have adopted a simpler process. They have been able to find few flaws in his nature, and therefore have denounced it in gross. It is not that his character was here and there defective, but that the eternal jewel was false. The patriotism was counterfeit; the self-abnegation and the generosity were counterfeit. He was governed only by ambition—by a desire of personal advancement. They never attempted to deny his talents, his industry, his vast sacrifices of wealth and station; but they ridiculed the idea that he could have been inspired by any but unworthy motives. God alone knows the heart of

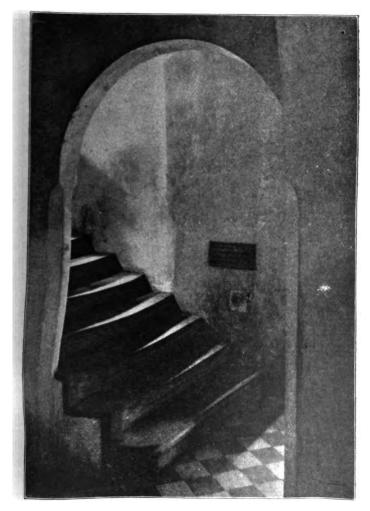
man. He alone can unweave the tangled skein of human motives, and detect the hidden springs of human action, but as far as can be judged by a careful observation of undisputed facts, and by a diligent collation of public and private documents, it would seem that no man—not even Washington—has ever been inspired by a purer patriotism. At any rate, the charge of ambition and self-seeking can only be answered by a reference to the whole picture which these volumes have attempted to portray. The words, the deeds of the man are there. As much as possible, his inmost soul is revealed in his confidential letters, and he who looks in a right spirit will hardly fail to find what he desires.

Whether originally of a timid temperament or not, he was certainly possessed of perfect courage at last. In siege and battle—in the deadly air of pestilential cities—in the long exhaustion of mind and body which comes from unduly protracted labor and anxiety—amid the countless conspiracies of assassins—he was daily exposed to death in every shape. Within two years, five different attempts against his life had been discovered. Rank and fortune were offered to any malefactor who would compass the murder. He had already been shot through the head, and almost mortally wounded. Under such circumstances, even a brave man might have seen a pitfall at every step, a dagger in every hand, and poison in every cup. On the contrary, he was ever cheerful, and hardly took more precaution than usual. "God in his mercy," said he, with unaffected simplicity, "will maintain my innocence and my honor during my life and in future ages. As to my fortune and my life, I have dedicated both, long since, to his service. He will do therewith what pleases Him for His glory and my salvation." Thus his suspicions were not even excited by the ominous face of Gérard, when he first presented himself at the dining-room door. The Prince laughed off his wife's prophetic apprehension at the sight of his murderer, and was as cheerful as usual to the last.

He possessed, too, that which to the heathen philoso-



William the Silent.



Spot Where William the Silent Was Shot.

pher seemed the greatest good—the sound mind in the sound body. His physical frame was after death found so perfect that a long life might have been in store for him, notwith-standing all which he had endured. The desperate illness of 1574, the frightful gunshot wound inflicted by Jaureguy in 1582, had left no traces. The physicians pronounced that his body presented an aspect of perfect health. His temperament was cheerful. At table, the pleasures of which, in moderation, were his only relaxation, he was always animated and merry, and this jocoseness was partly natural, partly intentional. In the darkest hours of his country's trial, he affected a serenity which he was far from feeling, so that his apparent gaiety at momentous epochs was even censured by dullards, who could not comprehend its philosophy, nor applaud the flippancy of William the Silent.

He went through life bearing the load of a people's sorrows upon his shoulders with a smiling face. Their name was the last word upon his lips, save the simple affirmative, with which the soldier who had been battling for the right all his lifetime, commended his soul in dying "to his great captain, Christ." The people were grateful and affectionate, for they trusted the character of their "Father William," and not all the clouds which calumny could collect ever dimmed to their eyes the radiance of that lofty mind to which they were accustomed, in their darkest calamities, to look for light. As long as he lived, he was the guiding-star of a whole brave nation, and when he died the little children cried in the streets.

* * * *

His intellectual faculties were various and of the highest order. He had the exact, practical, and combining qualities which make the great commander, and his friends claim that, in military genius, he was second to no captain in Europe. This was, no doubt, an exaggeration of partial attachment, but it is certain that the Emperor Charles had an exalted opinion of his capacity for the field. His fortification of Philippeville and Charlemont, in the face of

the enemy—his passage of the Meuse in Alva's sight—his unfortunate but well-ordered campaign against that general—his sublime plan of relief, projected and successfully directed at last from his sick bed, for the besieged city of Leyden—will always remain monuments of his practical military skill.

Of the soldier's great virtues—constancy in disaster, devotion to duty, hopefulness in defeat—no man ever possessed a larger share. He arrived through a series of reverses, at a perfect victory. He planted a free commonwealth under the very battery of the Inquisition, in defiance of the most powerful empire existing. He was therefore a conqueror in the loftiest sense, for he conquered liberty and a national existence for a whole people. The contest was long, and he fell in the struggle, but the victory was to the dead hero, not to the living monarch. It is to be remembered, too, that he always wrought with inferior instruments. His troops were usually mercenaries, who were but too apt to mutiny upon the eve of battle, while he was opposed by the most formidable veterans of Europe, commanded successively by the first captains of the age. That, with no lieutenant of eminent valor or experience, save only his brother Louis, and with none at all after that chieftain's death. William of Orange should succeed in baffling the efforts of Alva, Requesens, Don John of Austria, and Alexander Farnese-men whose names are among the most brilliant in the military annals of the world-is in itself sufficient evidence of his warlike ability. At the period of his death he had reduced the number of obedient provinces to two; only Artois and Hainault acknowledging Philip, while the other fifteen were in open revolt, the greater part having solemnly forsworn their sovereign.

The supremacy of his political genius was entirely beyond question. He was the first statesman of the age. The quickness of his perception was only equaled by the caution which enabled him to mature the results of his observations. His knowledge of human nature was profound. He gov-

erned the passions and sentiments of a great nation as if they had been but the keys and chords of one vast instrument; and his hand rarely failed to evoke harmony even out of the wildest storms.

Ghent, saved thrice by the policy, the eloquence, the self-sacrifice of Orange, fell within three months of his murder into the hands of Parma. The loss of this most important city, followed in the next year by the downfall of Antwerp, sealed the fate of the Southern Netherlands. Had the Prince lived, how different might have been the country's fate! If seven provinces could dilate, in so brief a space, into the powerful commonwealth which the Republic soon became, what might not have been achieved by the united seventeen; a confederacy which would have united the adamantine vigor of the Batavian and Frisian races with the subtler, more delicate, and more graceful national elements in which the genius of the Frank, the Roman, and the Romanized Celt were so intimately blended. As long as the Father of the country lived, such a union was possible. His power of managing men was so unquestionable, that there was always a hope even in the darkest hour, for men felt implicit reliance, as well on his intellectual resources as on his integrity.

This power of dealing with his fellowmen he manifested in the various ways in which it has been usually exhibited by statesmen. He possessed a ready eloquence—sometimes impassioned, oftener argumentative, always rational. His influence over his audience was unexampled in the annals of that country or age; yet he never condescended to flatter the people. He never followed the nation, but always led her in the path of duty and of honor, and was much more prone to rebuke the vices than to pander to the passions of his hearers. He never failed to administer ample chastisement to parsimony, to jealousy, to insubordination, to intolerance, to infidelity, wherever it was due, nor feared to confront the states or the people in their most angry hours, and

to tell them the truth to their faces. This commanding position he alone could stand upon, for his countrymen knew the generosity which had sacrified his all for them, the selfdenial which had eluded rather than sought political advancement, whether from king or people, and the untiring devotion which had consecrated a whole life to toil and danger in the cause of their emancipation. While, therefore, he was ever ready to rebuke, and always too honest to flatter, he at the same time possessed the eloquence which could convince or persuade. He knew how to reach both the mind and the heart of his hearers. His orations, whether extemporaneous or prepared—his written messages to the statesgeneral, to the provincial authorities, to the municipal bodies -his private correspondence with men of all ranks, from emperors and kings down to secretaries, and even childrenall show an easy flow of language, a fulness of thought, a power of expression rare in that age, a fund of historical allusion, a considerable power of imagination, a warmth of sentiment, a breadth of view, a directness of purpose—a range of qualities, in short, which would in themselves have stamped him as one of the master-minds of his century, had there been no other monument to his memory than the remains of his spoken or written eloquence. The bulk of his performances in this department was prodigious. Not even Philip was more industrious in the cabinet. Not even Granville hald a more facile pen. He wrote and spoke equally well in French, German, or Flemish; and he possessed, besides, Spanish, Italian, Latin. The weight of his correspondence alone would have almost sufficed for the common industry of a lifetime, and although many volumes of his speeches and letters have been published, there remain in the various archives of the Netherlands and Germany many documents from his hand which will probably never see the light. If the capacity for unremitted intellectual labor in an honorable cause be the measure of human greatness, few minds could be compared to the "large composition" of this man.

The German Kaiser

By Harold Frederic

[The purpose of this series of studies which has been selected from the best of the many books written upon the German Emperor is to give Chautauquan readers an accurate picture of the most striking personality among the crowned heads of Europe. The following extracts, taken from Harold Frederic's "The Young Emperor," published by Putnam's in 1892, will be followed by others from equally interesting and more recent writers.]

The Kaiser's Education

YOUNG WILLIAM was the first of his race to be sent to a public school, the big gymnasium at Cassel being selected for the purpose. The innovation was credited at the time to the eccentric liberalizing notions of his mother, the English Crown Princess. The old Kaiser did not like the idea, and Bismarck vehemently opposed it, but the parents had their way, and at the age of fifteen the lad went, along with his twelve-year-old brother Henry, and their tutor, Dr. Hinzpeter. They were lodged in an old schloss, which had been one of the Electoral residences, and out of school hours maintained a considerable seclusion. But in the school itself William was treated quite like any ordinary citizen's son.

It may have been a difficult matter for some of the teachers to act as if they were unconscious that this particular pupil was the heir to the Hohenzollerns, but men who were at the school at the time assure me they did so, with only one exception. The solitary flunkey, knowing that William was more backward in his Greek than most of his class, sought to curry favor with the Prince by warning him that the morrow's examination was to be, let us say, upon a certain chapter of Xenophon. The boy William received this hint in silence, but early the next morning went down to the classroom and wrote upon the blackboard in big letters the

information he had received, so that he might have no advantage over his fellows. This struck me when I heard it as a curious illustration of the boy's character. There seems to have been no excited indignation at the meanness of the tutor—but only the manifestation of a towering personal and family pride, which would not allow him to win a prize through profiting by knowledge withheld from the others.

During his three years at Cassel William was very democratic in his intercourse with the other boys. He may have been helped to this by the fact that he was one of the worst-dressed boys in the school—in accordance with an ancient family rule which makes the Hohenzollern children wear out their old clothes in a way that would astonish the average grocer's progeny. He was only an ordinary scholar so far as his studies went. At that time his brother Henry, who went to a different school, was conspicuously the brighter pupil of the two. Those who were at Cassel with the future Emperor have the idea that he was contented there, but he himself, upon reflection, is convinced that he did not like it.

At the age of eighteen William left Cassel and entered upon his university course at Bonn. Here his tutor, Hinzpeter, who had been his daily companion and mentor from childhood, parted company with him, and the young Prince passed into the hands of soldiers and men of the world. The change marks an important epoch in the formation of his character.

There is a photograph of him belonging to the earlier part of this Cassel period which depicts a refined, gentle, dreamy-faced German boy, with a soft, girlish chin, small arched lips with a suggestion of dimples at the corners, and fine meditative eyes. The forehead, though not broad, is of fair height and fullness. The dominant effect of the face is that of sweetness. Looking at it, one instinctively thinks "How fond that boy's parents must have been of him!" And they were fond in the extreme.

It is more than probable that the idea of sending the young Prince to the Cassel gymnasium originated with Dr. Hinzpeter. At all events, we know that he held advanced and extreme views as to the necessity of emphasizing the popular side of the Hohenzollern tradition.

This Prussian family has always differed radically from its other German neighbors in professing to be solicitous for the poor people rather than for the nobility's privileges and claims. Sometimes this has sunk to be a profession merely; more often it has been an active guiding principle. The lives of the second and third Kings of Prussia are filled with the most astonishing details of vigilant, ceaseless intermeddling in the affairs of peasant farmers, artisans, and wage-earners generally, hearing complaints, spying out injustice, and roughly seeing wrongs righted. When Prussia grew too big to be thus paternally administered by a King poking about on his rounds with a rattan and a taker of notes, the tradition still survived. We find traces of it all along down to our times in the legislation of the Diet in the direction of what is called State Socialism.

Dr. Hinzpeter felt the full inspiration of this tradition. He longed to make it more a reality in the mind of his princely pupil than it had ever been before. Thus it was that the lad was sent to Cassel, to sit on hard benches with the sons of simple citizens, and to get to know what the life of the people was like. Years afterwards this inspiration was to bear fruit.

But in 1877 the work of creating an ideally democratic and popular Hohenzollern was abruptly interrupted. Dr. Hinzpeter went back to Bielefeld, and young William entered the University of Bonn. The soft-faced, gentle-minded boy, still full of his mother's milk, his young mind sweetened and strengthened by the dreams of clemency, compassion, and earnest searchings after duty which he had imbibed from his teacher, suddenly found himself transplanted in new ground. The atmosphere was absolutely novel. Instead of being a boy among boys, he all at once found him-

self a prince amongst aristocratic toadies. In place of Hinzpeter, he had a military aide given him for principal companion, friend, and guide.

These next few years at the Rhenish university did not, we see now, wholly efface what Dr. Hinzpeter had done. But they obscured and buried his work, and reared upon its a superstructure of another sort—a different kind of William, redolent of royal pretensions, and youthful self-conceit, delighting in the rattle and clank of spurs and swords and dreaming of battlefields.

Poor Hinzpeter, in his Bielefeld retreat, could have had but small satisfaction in learning of the growth of the new William. The parents at Potsdam, too, who had built such loving hopes upon the tender and gracious promise of boyhood—they could not have been happy either.

The Kaiser and the Press

A whimsical susceptibility to affront in the printed word, no matter how mean or trivial the force back of it, is a trait which has often come near making Bismarck ridiculous, and it is not pleasant to note how largely William seems also to be possessed with it. He is as nervous about what the papers will say as a young debutante on the stage. Not only does he keep an anxious watch upon the talk of the German editors, but he ordains a vigilant scrutiny of the articles printed in foreign countries from the pens of correspondents stationed at Berlin. In this he is very German. Nobody in England, for example, ever dreams of caring about, or for the most part of even taking the trouble to learn, what is printed about English personages or politics. The foreign correspondents in London are as free as the wind that blows. But matters were ordered very differently at the beginning of the present reign in Berlin, and to this day journalists pursue their calling there under a sense of espionage hardly to be imagined in Fleet Street. It is true that a change for the better is distinctly visible of late, but it will be the work of many years to eradicate the low views of German journalism which Bismarck has instilled, alike, unfortunately, in the royal palaces and the editorial offices of Prussia.

So recently as in May, 1890, some two months after the retirement of Bismarck, when the regular official deputation from the new Reichstag waited upon William, he pointed out to the Radical members that the *Freisinnige* press was criticizing the army estimates, which he and his generals had made as low as possible, and sharply warned them to see that a stop was put to such conduct on the part of their friends, the Radical editors. And in December of 1890, in his remarkable speech to the Educational Conference, he lightly grouped journalists with the "hunger candidates" and others who formed an over-educated class "dangerous to society."

The Kaiser's Infallibility

This inability to tolerate the expression of opinions different from his own is very Bismarckian. The ex-Chancellor, in fact, has for years past acted and talked upon the theory that anybody who did not agree with him must of necessity be unpatriotic, and came at last to hurl the epithet of *Reichsfeind*—enemy of the Empire—every time anyone disputed him on any point whatever.

William has roughly shorn away Bismarck's pretence to infallibility, but about the divine nature of his own claims he has no doubt. Some of his deliverances on questions of morals and ethics, in his capacity as a sort of helmeted Northern Pope, are calculated to bring a smile to the face of the Muse of History. His celebrated harangue to the Rector of the Berlin University, Professor Gebhardt, wherein he complained that, under the lead of democratic professors, the students were filled with destructive political doctrines, and concluded by gruffly saying, "Let your students go more to churches and less to beer cellars and fencing saloons"—was put down to his youth, for it dates



The Kaiser in the Uniform of a Spanish General.

from the close of 1888. It is interesting to note, from William's recent speech at Bonn, that he has decidedly altered his views on both beer-drinking and duelling among students. He began his reign, however, with ultra-puritanical notions on these as well as other subjects.

Long after this early deliverance his confidence in himself, so far from suffering abatement, had so magnified itself that he called the professors of another university together and lectured them upon the bad way in which they were taught history. He had discovered, he said, that there was now much fondness for treating the French Revolution as a great political movement, not without its helpful and beneficient results. This pernicious notion must no longer be encouraged in German universities, but students should be taught to regard the whole thing as one vast and unmitigated crime against God and man.

In this dogmatic phrase of his character William is much more like Frederic William I than like any of his nearer ancestors in the Hohenzollern line. These later monarchs. beginning with Frederic the Great and following his luminous example, were habitually chary about bothering them-William at one selves with their subjects' opinions. time thought a good deal upon the fact that he was a successor of Frederic the Great, and by fits and starts set himself to imitate the earlier acts of that sovereign. His restless flying about from place to place, and, even more clearly, his edicts rebuking the army officers for gambling and for harshness to their men, were copied from the illustrious original. But in his attitude toward the mental and moral liberty of his subjects he goes back a generation to Frederic's father-and suggests to us also the reflection that he is a grandson of that highly self-confident gentleman whom English-speaking people knew as the Prince Consort.

Personal Appearance

In the matter of personal appearance there are two quite distinct and different Williams. Those who see the



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The Kaiser as a Doctor of Laws, Cambridge University.

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young German Emperor on a state occasion think of him as almost a tall man, with a stern, thoughtful face and the most distinguished bearing of any sovereign in Europe. He holds himself with arrow-like straightness, bears his uniform or robes with proud grace, and draws his features into a kind of mask of imperial dignity and reserved wisdom and strength very impressive to the beholder. It is with what may be called this official countenance of William's that the general public is chiefly familiar, for he assumes it in front of the photographer's camera, just as he does on parade, at formal gatherings, and even in his carriage when he drives through the streets. There is nothing to cavil at in this. One of the most important functions of an Emperor must surely be to look like an Emperor.

But in private life, when the absence of ceremonial and the presence of none but friends permits him to unbend, we see quite another William. He does not now give the impression of being a tall man, and his face wears a softened and kindly expression prone to break into an extremely sweet and winning smile. When this smiling mood is upon him he looks curiously like his uncle, the Duke of Connaught, although at other times the resemblance is not apparent. As a boy he was very white-skinned, with pale flaxen hair. Years of military outdoor life burned his face to a tawny brown, through which of late an unhealthy pallor, the product of overwork and sleeplessness, at times shows itself. His hair is of average darkness, but his small and habitually curled moustache is of a light yellowish color.

An observer who studied him closely during a whole day when he first visited Russia in 1888 describes him at the first morning review of troops as carrying himself almost pompously erect, and wearing a countenance of such gloomy severity that everybody was afraid to approach him, so that the officers who saw him for the first time jokingly whispered to one another that a new William the Taciturn had come into being. But in the afternoon, when the Czarina presided over a little garden party, limited almost to

the circle of royalty, William appeared in a straw hat and jaunty holiday costume, smoked cigarettes continuously, and taughed and chatted with everybody as gaily and affably as any little bank book-keeper snatching an unaccustomed day in the country.

The Kaiser Religious

The young Emperor has always been spoken of by those close to him as a sincerely religious man. During the past year his tendencies in this direction have visibly received a great impetus. The note of pious fervor is struck now with much greater frequency than formerly, and with a ring of candor which forbids the suggestion of pretence. He only the other day concluded a speech to a squad of recruits with the earnest injunction to use the Lord's Prayer, adding that he had himself derived much help from doing so. It is not an altogether pleasant commentary upon the value of the Christian profession of our day, that this remark has been cited as indication that William's mind was losing its balance. The scandalous stories which the French and Russian press set in circulation last summer about his mad behavior on his yacht, were all built upon the fact that he preached sermons to the crew—or rather read a series of little homilies prepared for the purpose by one of his chaplains. If this is a proof of madness, it might not be a bad idea to have William bite some of the other sovereigns and princes of Europe.

Famous European Short Stories

I. On the Journey*

By Guy de Maupassant

[In connection with the C. L. S. C. book "Studies in European Literature" it is planned to publish in The Chautauquan each month some short story masterpiece by the greatest European writers. The story published herewith is by Guy de Maupassant, the acknowledged master of French short story. This example of his work, though perhaps not so widely known as some others, is nevertheless typical of his style and method. —The Editor.

S INCE leaving Cannes the carriage had been full; and being all acquainted, we conversed together. As we passed Tarascon someone said, "It is here the murders happen." And we began to talk of that mysterious assassin who has never been caught, and who from time to time during the last two years has offered up to himself some traveler's life. Everyone hazarded suppositions, everyone gave his opinion; and women looked shiveringly at the sombre night behind the panes, fearing to see the head of a man show suddenly in the doorway. And we began to tell dreadful stories of adventures, of some tête-à-tête with a madman in an express, of hours passed opposite suspicious-looking persons, quite alone.

All the men had stories "on their honor;" all had intimidated, knocked down, and choked some malefactor in surprising circumstances, and with admirable boldness and presence of mind. A physician who passed each winter in the South, wished in his turn to tell a tale.

"I," said he, "have never had a chance to try my courage in an affair of that sort; but I knew a woman, one of my patients, who is now dead, to whom there happened the strangest thing in the world, and also the most mysterious and the most affecting. •

^{*}From the "Odd Number," by Guy de Maupassant. Translated by Jonathan Sturges. Copyright, 1889, by Harper and Brothers. Reprinted through the courtesy of the publishers.

"She was a Russian, the Countess Marie Baranow, a very great lady of exquisite beauty. You all know how beautiful Russian woman are, or at least how beautiful they seem to us, with their fine nostrils, with their delicate mouths, with their eyes of an indefinable color—a sort of a blue-gray, set close together—and with that grace of theirs which is cold and a little hard. They have about them something naughty and seductive, something haughty and gentle, something tender and severe, which is altogether charming to a Frenchman. It is perhaps, however, only the difference of race and type which makes me see so much.

"For several years her doctor had perceived that she was threatened with a malady of the chest, and had been trying to induce her to go to the South of France; but she obstinately refused to leave St. Petersburg. Finally, last autumn, the physician gave her up as lost, and so informed her husband, who at once ordered his wife to leave for Mentone.

"She took the train, alone in her carriage, her servants occupying another apartment. She leaned against the doorway, a little sad, watching the country and the passing villages, feeling herself in life so lonely, so abandoned, without children, almost without relatives, with a husband whose love was dead, and who, not coming with her, had just thrown her off to the end of the world as he would send to the hospital a valet who was sick.

"At each station, her body-servant Ivan came to ask if anything was wanted by his mistress. He was an old servant, blindly devoted, ready to carry out any order which she might give.

"The night fell, the train rolled onward at full speed. She was much unstrung, she could not sleep. Suddenly she took the idea of counting the money which her husband had given her at the last moment, in French gold. She opened her little bag, and emptied the shining flood of metal upon her knees.

Famous European Short Stories

"But all of a sudden a breath of cold air struck her in the face. She raised her head in surprise. The door had just swung open. The Countess Marie, in desperation, brusquely threw a shawl over the money which was spread upon her knees, and waited. Some seconds passed, then a man appeared, bareheaded, wounded in the hand, panting, in evening dress. He shut the door again, sat down, looked at his neighbor with glittering eyes, then wrapped a handkerchief round his wrist, from which the blood was flowing.

"The young countess felt herself grow weak with fright. This man had certainly seen her counting her gold, and he was come to murder and to rob.

"He kept staring at her, breathless, his face convulsed, ready, no doubt, to make a spring.

"He said suddenly:

"'Have no fear, madame!'

"She answered nothing, being unable to open her mouth, hearing her heart beat and her ears hum.

"He continued:

"'I am not a criminal, madame.'

"She said nothing, but in a brusque movement which she made, her knees came close together, and her gold began to flow down upon the carpet as water flows from a gutter.

"The man, surprised, looked at this rivulet of metal, and suddenly he stooped to pick up the money.

"She rose in a mad fright, casting all her treasure to the ground, and ran to the door to throw herself out upon the track. But he understood what she was about to do, rushed forward, caught her in his arms, made her sit down by force, and holding her wrists: 'Listen, madame, I am not a criminal, and the proof is that I am going to pick up this money and give it back to you. But I am a lost man, a dead man, unless you help me to cross the frontier. I cannot tell you more. In one hour we shall be at the last Russian station; in one hour and twenty minutes we shall pass the boundary of the empire. If you do not rescue me, I am lost. And yet, madame, I have neither killed nor

stolen, nor done anything against my honor. I swear it to you. I cannot tell you more.'

"And getting down upon his knees, he picked up the gold, looking even for the last pieces, which had rolled far under the seats. Then, when the little leather bag was once more full, he returned it to his neighbor without adding a word and again he went and sat in the other corner of the carriage.

"They no longer stirred, either one or the other. She remained motionless and dumb, still fainting with terror, then little by little growing more at ease. As for him, he did not make a gesture, a movement; he sat straight, his eyes fastened before him, very pale, as though he had been dead. From time to time she looked at him suddenly, and as suddenly looked away. He was a man about thirty, very handsome, with every appearance of a gentleman.

"The train ran through the darkness, cast rending cries across the night, sometimes slackened its pace, then went off again at full speed. But suddenly it slowed, whistled several times, and stopped.

"Ivan appeared at the door to get his orders.

"The Countess Marie, with a trembling voice, considered her strange companion for the last time, then said to her servant, with a brusque voice:

"The man, speechless, opened his enormous eyes. He stammered:

"'But-Barine!"

"She continued:

"'No, you are not to come; I have changed my mind. I desire that you remain in Russia. Here is money to return. Give me your cap and your cloak.'

"The old servant, quite bewildered, bared his head and held out his cloak. He always obeyed without reply, being well accustomed to the sudden wishes and the irresistible caprices of his masters. And he withdrew, the tears in his eyes.

"The train went on, running towards the frontier.

"Then the Countess Marie said to her neighbor:

"'These things are for you, moniseur; you are Ivan, my servant. I add only one condition to what I do: it is that you shall never speak to me, that you shall not address me a single word, either to thank me or for any purpose whatever.'

"The unknown bowed without uttering a word.

"Very soon they came to a stop once more, and officials in uniform visited the train. The countess offered them her papers, and pointing to the man seated at the back of the carriage:

"'My servant, Ivan. Here is his passport.

"The train went on.

"During the whole night, they remained in tête-à-tête, both silent.

"In the morning, when they stopped at a German station, the unknown got down; then, standing straight in the door-way:

"'Forgive my breaking my promise, madame; but I have deprived you of your servant, and it is right that I should fill his place. Have you need of anything?'

"She answered coldly:

"'Go and find my maid.'

"He went to do so, then disappeared.

"When she got out of the carriage at some restaurant or other, she perceived him at a distance looking at her. They reached Mentone."

The doctor was silent a second, then resumed:

"One day, as I was receiving my patients in my office, I saw enter a tall young fellow, who said to me:

"'Doctor, I come to ask news about the Countess Marie Baranow. I am, although she does not know me, a friend of her husband.'

"I replied:

"'She is doomed. She will never go back to Russia.'

"And the man suddenly commenced to sob, then he got up and went out, reeling like a drunkard.

"The same night I told the countess that a stranger had come to inquire from me about her health. She seemed moved, and told me all the story which I have just told you. She added:

"'That man, whom I do not know at all, now follows me like a shadow, I meet him every time I go out; he looks at me after a strange fashion, but he has never spoken.'

"She reflected, then added:

"'See, I would wager he is under my window.'

"She left her easy-chair, went to pull back the curtains, and sure enough, she showed me the man who had come to see me, now seated there on a bench upon the promenade, his eyes lifted towards the hotel. He perceived us, rose, and went off without once turning his head.

"And from that time forward, I assisted at a surprising sorrowful thing—at the silent love of these two beings, who did not even know one another.

"He loved her with the affection of an animal who has been saved, and who is grateful and devoted unto death. He came each day to say to me: 'How is she?' understanding that I had divined the secret. And he cried when he had seen her pass each day feebler and paler.

· "She said to me:

"'I have spoken but a single time to that strange man, and it seems to me as if I had known him for twenty years.'

"And when they met, she would return his bow with a grave and charming smile. I could see that she was happy—she, the abandoned, the doomed—I could see that she was happy to be loved like this, with such respect and such consistency, with such exaggerated poetry, with this devotion which was ready for all things. And notwith-standing, faithful to her mystical resolve, she wildly refused to receive him, to know his name, to speak with him. She said: 'No, no, that would spoil for me this curious

friendship. We must remain strangers one to the other.'

"As for him, he also was certainly a kind of Don Quixote, because he made no attempt to approach her. He meant to keep to the end the absurd promise of never speaking, which he had made her in the railway carriage.

"Often, during her weary hours of weakness, she rose from her long chair, and went to open the curtains a little way to see if he was there, beneath her window. And when she had seen him, always motionless upon his bench, she went back and lay down with a smile upon her lips.

"She died one day about ten o'clock. As I was leaving the hotel he came up to me with a distracted face; he had already heard the news.

"'I would like to see her, for one second, in your presence,' said he.

"I took him by the arm and went back into the house.

"When he was before the couch of the dead he seized her hand and kissed it with an endless kiss, then escaped like a madman."

The doctor again was silent; then continued:

"This is certainly the strangest railway adventure that I know. It must also be said that men take sometimes the wildest freaks."

A woman murmured, half aloud:

"Those two people were not so crazy as you think. They were-they were-"

But she could not speak further, she was crying so. As we changed the conversation to calm her, we never knew what she had wished to say.

The Vesper Hour*

By Chancellor John H. Vincent

At the opening "Vesper Hour" of the new year in the C. L. S. C. perhaps I cannot do better than to reply to certain questions which have recently come to me and which may often have arisen in the minds of other Chautauqua readers. One member raises the following question: When we speak of the Jews as "chosen people" are we not implying a lack of justice in God in dealing with other races?

The most interesting of all the races is the Hebrew. To say nothing of the Biblical records, in the details of the history from the days of Abraham to those of St. John we find the most interesting material in the studies which have been made of the persecutions, the achievements, the indefatigable efforts and the marvelous successes which individuals and families have scored. It is too late in our modern civilization to depreciate the race as a whole, or to speak words of contempt of individual Hebrews. For industry, tact, persistency, patience under abuse, fidelity to religious conviction the Jews are not only not excelled, they are not equaled in the annals of history. They were, according to our Christian theory, a chosen people with a specific mission of preparation for a consummation the most wonderful in all history—the birth, the training and the manifestation of the Messiah, the Christ whom as Christians we recognize as the ripe fruit of the whole Jewish system, a human-divine product through whom the highest civilization of the race has been realized and through whom the salvation of the race—the representatives of the race who give consent—is guaranteed. We Christians owe all that is best and noblest in our civilization to the Jew. The most precious names on our list of saints, heroes, teachers from Moses to Christ are names of Jews. The great Christian

^{*}The Vesper Hour, contributed to THE CHAUTAUQUAN each month by Chancellor Vincent, continues the ministries of Chautauqua's Vesper Service throughout the year.

authorities, Paul, Peter, John, Matthew, Luke, all were Jews.

The Jews we always, as Christian people, say were a "chosen people." To them we are indebted for all that is best in the beginnings of the Christian faith. When we say that they were a "chosen" people we do not assume that our great God was at all a partial God, giving advantage to one people above another. In the divine wisdom and love all peoples the world over and the ages through have some knowledge of Deity, some intimations and leadings which if followed will invariably and inevitably bring more light to the individual who is willing to obey the light he has. God has had his witness among all races. No individual with the moral sense but has his opportunity to choose between the higher and the lower, the truth and error. And as each man follows the light he has a clearer light and a larger opportunity has been given him. Everybody has a chance. No one is without ability to show what his preference is and what line of life he will follow. The Jews were a chosen people, chosen for a special work, chosen to illustrate the divine providence in all nations and for all people. They were favored in being illustrations of God's universal care. What Israel had all peoples in some measure had. God calls all nations to honor Him, to follow His direction. And the career of Israel was a lesson for individual lives and for national life in all climes and in all periods of history. The ideals of personal character set forth by distinguished Israelites were designed to foreshadow the Messiah and to serve as examples for all time, and for Gentiles of every kind.

The question is asked: "Do you not think that the present study of Sociology in college and social 'settlements' is tending to displace religious interest?" In reply I say with all possible emphasis: The very reverse is true.

There is a new interest in the civilized world in the study of social questions. We find it everywhere. The great missionary movements projected and carried on during the past century have awakened a new interest in the great question of the relations of the individual to society and the obligation of all men everywhere to ask, How may man help man? How may society help the individual? How may the evils and sufferings and the sins of society be removed and society become strong in righteousness and philanthropic impulse? What is religion but the love of man born of the knowledge and love of God? What did the Son of Man in his teachings say concerning the two sides of human obligation? Thou shalt love the Lord God with all thy heart and thy neighbor as thyself. Modern Sociology is organized, scientific, efficient Christianity of the noblest type. It is carried on by foremost Christian believers. It develops religious faith and sympathy. It wins men and women to a higher appreciation of Christianity.

Some one writes as follows: "Do you think the church and the world are drawing nearer together to the detriment of the church?" I answer promptly and emphatically that what we call the "world" is often only the awakened "society" that has become aware of its responsibility to all members of the race and that for the first time apprehends the theory of Jesus that the highest service of God is in the love and service of our fellow men; that he best worships who helps, always, of course, keeping in mind both divine worship and in human service the necessity of having the heart filled with the love of both the divide Father and all human brothers which includes in a very important sense the entire race. It can never be a "detriment" to the church to love even the "Samaritan" as Iesus did and to do for the good of one's "enemy" just what one would wish that enemy to do for him. No unselfish love and service can possibly do anything but good to the doer and to the recipient. is a most unworthy view of religious obligation that limits religion to a certain class of ecclesiastical functions, a fixed and unalterable creed statement or the building up of an "institution" at the expense and the inevitable damage of society and "the state." Whatever makes for human wellbeing both in time and eternity is a legitimate object of Church sympathy, enthusiasm and endeavor.



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VINCENT, President.

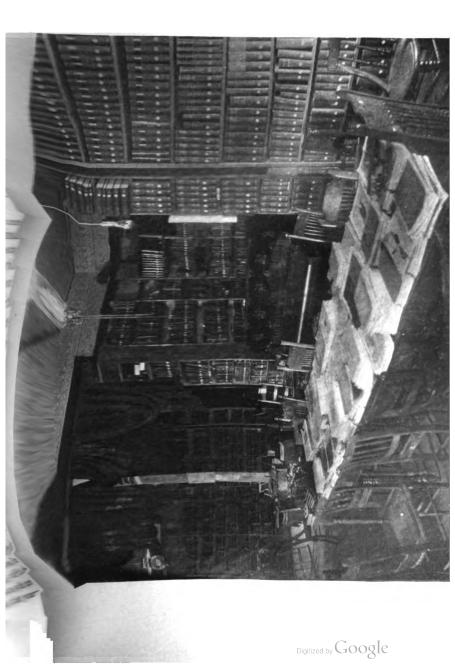
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THE LAYBOUR." manual regiming your course aring out with enthusiasm. : :cw convert, you are setting o tremous for a busy world, Hence this word the the most out of your four nurse is for rest and enward it large meaning in the voen and vomen. which or "respon" So the course must will speedily use is them. The en in School in meri-School I some the Ju Ju zhool peo-The are and aveloped in fact. So er series I was in the joy Four But the are the said care





OFFICERS OF CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE

JOHN H. VINCENT, Chancellor. GEORGE E. VINCENT, President.

COUNSELORS

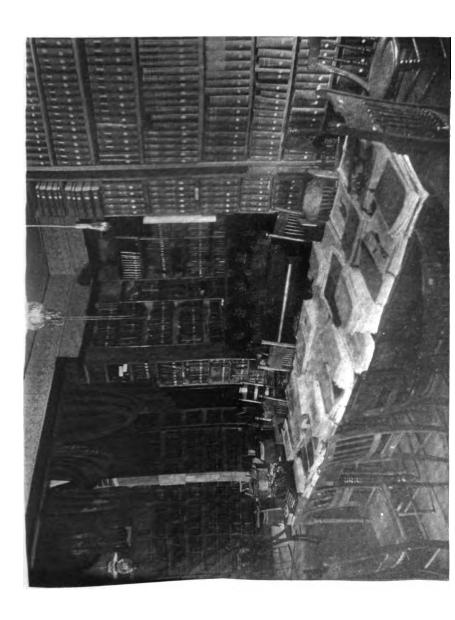
HENRY W. WARREN JESSE L. HURLBUT J. M. GIBSON LYMAN ABBOTT EDWARD EVERETT STALS JAMES H. CARLISLE

WM. C. WILKINSON

MISS KATE F. KIMBALL, Executive Secretary.

THE C. L. S. C. "EASY FOR ANYBODY."

If you are a new Chautauquan beginning your course this year, you are doubtless starting out with enthusiasm. Perchance with the ardor of a new convert, you are setting a pace for yourself rather too strenuous for a busy world. and so may begin to flag early in the race. Hence this word of suggestion that you may get the most out of your four years' venture. The C. L. S. C. course is for rest and eniovment, and "rest" is a word of large meaning in the vocabulary of grown men and women. It is sometimes spelled "growth" or "inspiration" or "vision." So the course must not be made a task or it will speedily lose its charm. The phrases "College Outlook" and "School for out-of-School People" as applied to the C. L. S. C. suggest to some the thought of rigid rules and recitations. But "out-of-school people" are a privileged class who have met life and developed individuality and the C. L. S. C. recognizes this fact. So you are free to select your own methods; to read for the joy of the reading,—and as much or as little as you choose. Four books in a year represent a small undertaking. "School" which prescribes them has chosen them with care and at the end of the four years you will realize that your mental growth has been an "all round" one.





City Hall, Wellsville, New York, where the public library is situated at present.



Typical Residence in Santiago, Chile.



Typical Views in Santiago Chile, as seen by a resident member of the C. L. S. C. Class of '08.

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Dr. Emil Reich.

A few years ago a young ranchman read the four years' course of the C. L. S. C. while tending a herd of sheep on the lonely plains of the far West. He had no books of reference, no "Circle" with whose members he could discuss his books. He simply read and enjoyed them and they opened a great new world to him. When he came back home to his college-trained sister and her companions he entered into their world as naturally as if his "campus" had been in the midst of ivy clad buildings instead of on the wind swept plains of Wyoming.

DR. EMIL REICH.

The author of the first book for the coming year, "Foundations of Modern Europe," is Dr. Emil Reich of Esperjes, Hungary. Dr. Reich studied at the Universities of Prague, Budapest, and Vienna, and holds the degree of Doctor of Law. Up to his thirtieth year he studied almost exclusively

in libraries, but later as he mentions in his preface to "Foundations of Modern Europe," he visited various countries in order that he might observe and study nationalities at first hand. He spent five years in the United States, four in France, and has been with interruptions for almost nine years in England. He has lectured frequently at Oxford, Canibridge, and London Universities, and was employed by the British government to prepare its side of the case in the Venezuela boundary affair. He is the author of a number of publications, among them a History of Civilization; Hungarian Literature; Success among Nations; The



Mr. George Wharton Edwards.

Foreigner in History; several historical atlases, etc.

MR. GEORGE WHARTON EDWARDS.

Mr. George W. Edwards, whose "Reading Journey Through the Hollow Land" begins with this number of The Chautauquan, was born in Fair Haven, Conn. He received his academic education in Antwerp and in Paris. He has been awarded numerous medals both here and abroad for his painting and also for his work in black and white, as he is one of the best known of our present day illustrators. For five years he was director of the Art Department of Collier's Magasine and is now connected with the American Banknote Company. He is a member of the American Water Color Society, the National Sculpture Society, the New York Water Color Club, the Author's Club, the Ex-Libris Society of London, and the Society "Amsterdamsch" of the Netherlands.

He painted a mural decoration entitled Hendrik Hudson for the West Point Military Academy and is the author of a number of charming sketches,—"Break O'Day and Cther Stories," "Thumb Nail Sketches," "P'tit Matinic Monotones," etc. He has illustrated Oliver Wendell Holmes' "Last Leaf," Spenser's "Epithalamium," and "Old English Love Songs" and "Old English Ballads."

THE FIRST BOOK OF THE YEAR.

Don't make the mistake of thinking that you must know all the facts to which Professor Reich alludes in his "Foundations of Modern Europe" in order to enjoy and find profit in it. Few people except trained historical scholars could explain every one of the author's allusions. In most cases the facts are given with sufficient fullness to show what the writer is endeavoring to bring out. Try to get the chief ideas which he emphasizes in each chapter and you will find great enjoyment in his arguments and conclusions. Get someone to read it with you if possible. You may disagree with the author and you will want someone who has read the book to listen while you argue your case!

THE SMALL CIRCLE.

One of the chief advantages of a Chautauqua Circle is the opportunity which it offers for the discussion of subjects in which its members have a newly awakened interest. Many a reader who would be quite appalled at the idea of being quizzed upon his slender store of historical knowledge will quite forget his fears when gently stimulated to a discussion of something which he has been reading. So it is that small informal Circles which can gather about a table have a great opportunity. Under the magic of sympathy, timid students are transformed and the Circle illustrates in its own experience the meaning of education—to lead forth.

ESPERANTO.

A new world language seems to be an inevitable step in the progress of the "Friendship of Nations." Whether Esperanto proves itself to be the language or not, such a laudable attempt is entitled to a hearing. Hence the last pages of The Chautauquan each month will be turned into an Esperanto school for Chautauquans who are of an experimental turn of mind. Some readings or question matches or other diversions in Esperanto may fittingly occupy a brief space at the close of a Circle meeting.



As the edition of THE CHAUTAUQUAN for September, 1906, is very nearly exhausted, the Chautauqua Press will be glad to secure extra copies which may be in a good state of preservation. They will be paid for at the rate of 15 cents per copy. Address Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, N. Y.

MAPS

In our studies in European history Circles and individuals will find great pleasure in clearing up their geographical ideas by means of maps. Some circles will enjoy using an outline map and filling in the places about which they are studying. In the case of "Foundations of Modern Europe" and of Holland also, it will be particularly interesting to follow the changes in Europe which have taken place during the last three hundred years. The Chautauqua Press can furnish excellent outline maps of Europe for a small amount.

ILLUSTRATED LECTURES FOR CHAUTAUQUA READERS.

Members of the C. L. S. C. who have enjoyed the articles in The Chautauquan on American Sculpture and American Painting by Miss Edwina Spencer of Buffalo, N. Y., will be glad to know that it will be possible to secure from her a number of illustrated lectures upon topics relating to the C. L. S. C. Course. Circles which want to draw attention to their work for the coming year could, for instance, arrange for the lecture on Dutch Art early in the autumn. This would arouse interest in the subject and induce people either to join the Circle or to take up at home THE CHAUTAUQUAN series by Professor Zug which will present this subject in detail. Such a lecture would enable Circles to extend their influence and be of real service to the community. The sale of tickets would result in a fund which might be devoted to the purchase of books or other Circle projects. If the Circle alone is not strong enough to carry out the plan, cooperation with an Epworth League, or a Woman's Club, or a missionary society might be very feasible. Miss Spencer is especially well qualified for her work as a lecturer. She is a thorough student, is personally familiar with the subjects which she describes, and presents her material in a practical, educational way which leaves a clear impression. She believes that art has a great mission to perform in this country and her enthusiasm easily communicates itself to her audience. Arrangements can be made for these lectures by writing The Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, N. Y. Miss Spencer would be glad to visit small communities whenever possible and if necessary would make special terms to such Circles. The following lectures are available. They are illustrated with the stereopticon:

AMERICAN ART. THREE LECTURES.

- 1. Colonial and Revolutionary Days; the Beginning of a Native Art.
 - 2. The Middle Period: Years of Growth.
 - 3. Contemporary Artists; Present status of American Art.
 - A continuation and enlargement of last year's course in THE

CHAUTAUQUAN. Illustrated by stereopticon, many of the slides being from rare and inaccessible examples of our native painters and sculptors.

Any one of the following series of three lectures may also be

given singly.

I. DUTCH ART.

A single lecture designed to supplement the series of articles on Dutch artists by Professor Zug to be studied in the C. L. S. C. Course for this year. Mr. Zug's work will treat of Holland's great masters; and Miss Spencer's lecture will deal with Dutch Art as a whole, its origin, its gift to mankind, and what it stands for in the story of the world's art.

2. THE DEAD CITIES OF SICILY.

One lecture preparatory to the Classical Year in the C. L. S. C. describing these wonderful cities (such as old Syracuse) built by the ancient Greeks on the glorious island of Sicily, when it formed a part of "Magna Graecia.' These marvelous Grecian remains, surrounded as they now are by all the picturesque beauty of modern Italian life, tell a story of deep interest. Both the material of the lecture and the pictures illustrating it are to be used for the first time in this country.

3. GREECE TODAY.

A single lecture, also bearing on the Classical Year. It is concerned with modern Greece; its government and social conditions, the Greek Church, the Royal Family, scientific research, education, commerce, manufacture, the Greek men and women of today. The pictures are unique, gathered throughout Greece, and showing Greek scenery, cities, customs and costumes.



C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We study the Word and the Works of God."
"Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst."
"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

DPENING DAY—October 1.
BRYANT DAY—November 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY — November, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.
COLLEGE DAY — January, last Thursday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.
ADDISON DAY—May 1.

AY—October I. SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second AY—November 3. Sunday.
SUNDAY — November, INTERNATIONAL PEACE DAY — bunday.
May 18.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY — August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.

St. PAUL's DAY—August, second
Saturday after first Tuesday.
RECOGNITION DAY—August, third
Wednesday.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR OCTOBER.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "The Friendship of Nations," Part I.

The Present European Equilibrium.

In the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapter I. The War of American Independence as a European Struggle, to page 14.

SECOND WEEK-OCT. 8-15.

In the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapter I. The War of American Independence as a European Struggle, concluded.

THIRD WEEK-OCT. 15-22.

In the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapters II and III. The French Revolution.

FOURTH WEEK—OCT. 22-29.

In The Chautauquan: "A Reading Journey in Holland." Chapter I. Holland in History, page 40.
"Dutch Art and Artists." Chapter I. Frans Hals and the portrait.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

FIRST WEEK.

I. Discussion: Professor Emil Reich and his point of view. (See

Preface and Round Table.)

Brief Oral Reports, with map review on: The Wars of the "Spanish Succession," the "Austrian Succession," and the "Seven Years War," showing the cause of each and the territorial changes which were brought about. A rough sketch map should pe prepared which will make vivid the state of Europe at these different periods. (Maps will be found in histories of Europe, encyclopedias, etc. See also Round Table.)

3. Review and Discussion of first fourteen pages of "Foundations If Modern Europe," bringing out the chief points made by the

author.

4. Roll Call: Answered by quotations from all available American histories tending to prove or disprove the assertions of Professor Reich regarding their statements of the cause of the . American Revolution. (An interesting book in this connection is "American History and its Geographic Conditions," by Miss Ellen F. Semple.)
Review and Discussion of "The Present European Equilibium."

5. Review and Discussion of the free in magazines or re-6. Reading: Selections from recent articles in magazines or reviews bearing upon the "European Equilibrium" or from Jean DeBloch's "The Future of War."

SECOND WEEK.

1. Review of last half of Chapter I in "Foundations of Modern

Discussion of unusual words in the entire chapter.

3. Reading of Rousseau's "Emile" with reading of selections from

4. Roll Call: Mention two statements made in this chapter which seem to you especially worth remembering.

5. Study of the article on Frans Hals. Each member should be assigned one of the pictures described, showing how it illustrates the artist's characteristics. All other available pictures should be secured. The monograph on "Hals" in the "Masters in Art Series" (Bates & Guild, Boston, Mass.) contains ten fine half-tones and can be secured for twenty cents. Many good pictures can be found in old magazines.

THIRD WEEK. Brief Character Studies: Mirabeau, Louis XVI., Danton, Robespierre, Madame Roland, and St. Just.

Review and Discussion of the French Revolution, omitting details and bringing out clearly the significant steps in its pro-

Reading: Browning's "The Lost Leader" with explanation of

its significance; Selection from Carlyle's "French Revolution."
Book Review: "The Reds of the Midi," by Felix Gras.
Oral Report: Victor Hugo's "Ninety-Three," a phase of the French Revolution—see sketch in the C. L. S. C. book for this year, "Studies in European Literature." Reading: Selection from "Ninety-Three."

7. Roll Call: Current Events relating to happenings in Europe. FOURTH WEEK.

Note: One or more programs each month will be devoted to Holland and the several periods of its history studied in detail. William of Orange and his time, events associated with the Pilgrims, etc., though referred to in this number of THE CHAUTAU-

QUAN will be treated in later programs. Brief review of the Reading Journey to page 40 through the time of William the Silent, summing up the significant features of Dutch history.

2. Oral Reports or Papers: Holland and the House of Burgundy; The Early influence of the towns upon Dutch life; the Great Privilege. (See "Brave Little Holland," W. E. Griffis, "The Story of Holland," Rogers, "Holland and the Hollanders," Meldrum, and encyclopedia accounts of the Hanseatic League, etc.)
Map Review of Holland showing its general relation to Europe

at the successive periods of its history. (See Round Table.)
Roll Call: National Characteristics of the Hollander. (See
"Dutch Life in Town and Country" and all available books.)
Reading: Selection from Chapter I of "Holland and its People," by De Amicis (a very charming book and though writ-

ten some years ago, the acknowledged classic on Holland.) Discussion: Let each member bring an answer to the question,

"In what respects has Holland influenced the world?"

THE TRAVEL CLUB.

Special Programs for graduate Circles and Clubs Specializing upon the two Dutch Series. (A copy of Baedeker's "Belgium and Holland" is quite indispensable for such clubs.)

FIRST WEEK.

 Quiz: On the Reading Journey, Part I to page 40 through the time of William the Silent. (The summary in this first article gives a general view, the details of which will be brought out in later programs.)

2. Map Review of Holland showing its general relation to the rest of Europe at the successive periods of its history.

toll Call: National Characteristics of the Hollander. (See "Dutch Life in Town and Country" and all available books.) 3. Roll Call:

- 4. Oral Reports or Papers: Holland and the House of Burgundy; The Great Privilege; The Early influence of the towns upon Dutch life. (See "The Story of Holland," by Rogers, "Brave little Holland," by W. E. Griffis, encyclopedia accounts of the Hanseatic League, "Holland and the Hollanders," by Meldrum, etc.)
- 5. Reading: Selection from Chapter I of "Holland and its People," by De Amicis. (A very charming book and, though written years ago, the acknowledged classic on Holland.)

SECOND WEEK.

1. Character Sketch: Charles the V. (See "The Story of Holland," Rogers, histories of Europe, encyclopedias, etc.)

2. Reading: Selections from article entitled "Strange Lineage

of a Royal Baby," Cosmopolitan, 43:465, September, 1907.

3. Oral Report: The work of Motley as historian of the Netherlands.

Paper: Philip II. (See all available histories, encyclopedias, etc.)

5. Oral Reports: Character Sketches of Alva, Don John of Aus-

tria, and Alexander of Parma. Paper: William of Orange. (See Library Shelf, encyclopedias, and histories.)

7. Reading: The Assassination of William of Orange. (See Library Shelf in this Magazine.)

8. Roll Call: Answers to the question "Why does William of Orange take rank as one of the world's great men?"

9. Reading: From Chapter of Delft in De Amicis' "Holland and its People," containing references to William of Orange.

THIRD WEEK.

I. Roll Call: Answered by naming educational or religious leaders of the Netherlands from the fourteenth to the sixteenth century and for what each was famous. (See "Brave Little Holland," by W. E. Griffis.)

2 Map Review of Europe in the sixteenth century, especially Ger-

many, the Netherlands, and France.

3. Paper: In what Respects was Holland ahead of other Countries in the Time of William the Silent? (See Bibliography.)

4 Oral Report: Why did Protestantism take one form in Ger-

many and another in Holland?

6. Pronunciation Match on proper names in Chapter I of the Reading Journey. (In the October CHAUTAUQUAN will be found a list of Dutch proper names and their pronunciation.)

FOURTH WEEK.

I. Oral Reports: The Dutch Anabaptists; William Brewster; William Bradford. (See "The Pilgrims in their Three Homes," W. E. Griffis.)

2. Paper: The Pilgrims in Amsterdam. (See above.)

3. Map Review: Showing various localities in England and Holland associated with the Pilgrims.

4. Paper: Social Life of the Pilgrims in Leyden. (See above.)

 Oral Reports: The Synod of Dordrecht in 1618; when and why and how the Pilgrims emigrated.

6. Roll Call: Explanation of pictures of places in Holland con-

nected with the Pilgrims.



REVIEW QUESTIONS ON THE FRIENDSHIP OF NATIONS. CHAPTER I. THE PRESENT EUBOPEAN EQUILIBRIUM.

I. What is meant by the European equilibrium? 2. By what influences are nations chiefly governed? 3. What do the friendly visits of sovereigns and the enormous European armies signify as to the peace of Europe? 4. What combinations at present support the European balance? 5. To what recent events may this "balance" be traced? 6. What were the objects of the "Triple Alliance" as first planned between Germany and Austria? 7. When and why did Italy join it? 8. What secret treaty of Bismarck's was denounced by this alliance? 9. How were the other European nations affected by the Triple Alliance? 10. Describe "the affair of 1875" and its result. 11. What change in European relations have occurred since 1901? 12. What conditions led to the forming of an Anglo-Japanese alliance in 1902? 13. What did the treaty secure? 14. What statesmen later brought about the Anglo-French alliance? 15. What subjects were discussed in the three conventions which led up to this treaty? 16. What was the most important feature of this Anglo-French alliance? 17. Why was the Morocco situation a delicate one? 18. What is the present state of the question? 19. When and by whom was the Anglo-Russian Convention signed? 20. What three sets of questions does it include? 21. What effect had this treaty upon India? 23. What are the really effective guaranties of peace?

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "A READING JOURNEY IN THE HOLLOW-LAND."

CHAPTER I.

I. Sketch briefly the history of Holland previous to the fifteenth century. 2. How did the country become subject to the Duke of Burgundy? 3. Trace the family connections which brought Holland under the power of Spain. 4. What treatment did Holland receive at the hands of Charles V.? 5. What further indignities did Philip II. heap upon the country? 6. What champions of the people's liberty now arose and what did they demand? 7. What was Philip's response? 8. How did the Dutch people secure their independence? 9. Who was William the Stlent? 10. Against what odds did he have to contend? 11. Sum up the chief events from the death of William to the peace of Westphalia. 12. Describe Holland's various struggles with England in the seventeenth century for naval supremacy. 13. What was Holland's ill fated connection with France from 1705-1815? 14. Why did the union of Belgium in 1815 prove disastrous? 15. Who were the immediate ancestors of Queen Wilhelmina? 16. What was Prince Henry's title before his marriage? 17. What two elements in the Dutch civilization account for its great influence? 18. How did

early Dutch history compare with that of England? 19. How was Holland's influence felt in the Reformation? 20. In what varied ways have the Dutch people proved their genius? 21. What is true of their sense of civic honor? 22. Illustrate Holland's attitude toward freedom of trade? 23. How do Dutchman and American seem to resemble each other?

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON DUTCH ART AND ARTISTS.

1. When do we find the first distinctive school of Dutch art? 2. What were the characteristics of the painting that preceded it? 3. What are the characteristics of the first great Dutch painting? 4. Why is Hals remarkable as a portrait painter? 5. When and where did Hals live? 6. What paintings other than portraits has Hals left us? 7. What were the Shooting Companies? 8. What great difficulties did the painting of the Shooting Companies present? 9. Who was Judith Leyster? 10. How does her work resemble that of Hals?

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

1. What is meant by Russian nihilism? 2. Who is Mr. Henry Norman? 3. How did France secure possession of Tunis? 4. Who is the present Chancellor of the German Empire? 5. Who are the present Ambassadors of Great Britain, France, Germany, Russia, Italy, and Austria to the United States? 6. Name the present Premier and also the President of the French Republic.

the present Premier and also the President of the French Republic.

1. What was the Order of the Golden Fleece? 2. How extensive was the Dukedom of Burgundy in the fifteenth century?

3. What were some of the important provisions of the "Great Privilege?" 4. Who were the Beggars of the Sea? 5. What was

the Massacre of Bartholomew?

I. Who was Van Dyke? 2. What are some of his most famous paintings?

NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES.

The first session of the Round Table for the New Year brought out a large delegation of Chautauquans. New members of the Class of 1912, enthusiastic and full of eager curiosity, reported themselves ready for work. "I am reminded," said Pendragon as he congratulated the new readers, "of the advice an experienced settlement worker once gave to a young enthusiast about to enter a new field in a distant city. She did not say 'Keep up your courage,' or 'Cling to your ideals' or any of those phrases which we sometimes seem to thing are indispensable to the young novitiate, but 'Don't take yourself too seriously!' It's rather a good motto for Chautauquans for sometimes we are in danger of surrounding ourselves with such an atmosphere of serious study that our friends are repelled by our very intensity.

"These two photographs," said Pendragon, "have been sent by an individual reader in Santiago, Chile. They show some of the attractive features of that city. Miss Sailer is a member of the class of 1908 and has been teaching English History. She writes, 'The studies of the English Year have broadened my knowledge and in this way have deepened the interest of my class. I wait eagerly for the arrival of The Chautauquan. It is such a convenient size that I often read the numbers as I travel in the street car.' It would seem that people in Chile find it necessary to save time as much as we do in America," commented Pendragon as he opened another letter.

"A year ago," he continued," "you will remember that when we held our 'library' meeting at this time, I told you of the efforts of a reader in Osceola, New York, to secure good reading for a little hamlet where the small library established in her own store represented the chief intellectual center of the region round about. As public opinion did not always sustain her efforts to secure a state traveling library, it was suggested that some of the circles might be glad to lend a hand. I've just received this letter which shows in what friendly fashion the circles responded. Miss Mary L. Cowles writes as follows:"

"We had another 'Traveling Library' during the winter and spring and I think we never have had one that was used more than this one. One boy aged about eighteen read all the books in both libraries (seventy-five volumes), excepting a few of the very deep-est. Through the kindness of Chautauquans we have received quite a nucleus of a library. One lady in Ohio sent a number of volumes and magazines which we used in our Circle last winter. I wrote, thanking her for her help and my letter was returned unclaimed. She gave only her initials. A lady in Vermont was the second to respond. She sent several good books and magazines. She said she had taken her course alone, being unable to interest others in her town, and she almost envied those who had congenial people to read with them. The next installment came from a gentleman who is a member of a Circle at Canandaigua, New York. He sent several volumes of the Chautauqua Reading Course, besides several other good books, and also magazines and papers. The last gift came from a Circle at Mount Vernon, New York, and like the other boxes, contained both books and magazines, all of them good to add to our library. We now have almost fifty volumes, and many magazines and papers. These are not yet ready for circulation, but we expect to get them ready to circulate next month. One gentleman who has a summer home here has promised us some books, and I know of a few others who I think will help us a little when they know of our effort to get a library. If you would like a list of the books we have I will send it. We are grateful to those who have so kindly responded to your suggestion. We feel quite encouraged, and think a library here is a possibility. I am very anxious to have a boys' club of some sort during the coming winter. The influences here in the wrong direction are very strong, and we must try to do something to turn the tide. I think we could arrange to have a reading room in a vacant house, but do not know of anyone to take charge of it."

"The wealth of good reading matter," commented Pendragon,

"which many of us throw aside thoughtlessly would keep many a little village supplied with interesting reading. Every circle through its members or elsewhere can find some such center. Why not have a regular meeting toward the close of each year when members may bring such books and magazines as they or their friends can spare and send them to some designated address. In many families children grow up, and move away, leaving books which they do not care to take. Libraries often make their way to some old book store when many of their contents have real present day value. The gifts of a few circles have put 'courage' into a struggling librarian. Don't drop the work now but keep in friendly touch with Miss Cowles."

"You asked last year," said a delegate from Wellsville, New York, "about our Public Library which developed from a Chautauqua Circle. I'm sending you some photographs which will show how it looks at present, for our library is housed in the City Hall, We hope next year to be able to introduce you to our beautiful new building." At Pendragon's request the speaker, Miss Lillian Carpenter, gave some further details. "Our library," she said, "has been the special work of the Monday Club but we trace our pedigree straight back to the early days of Chautauqua when Mr. and Mrs. J. H. Brown of our village spent the summer at the Assembly and were present at the inauguration of the C. L. S. C. They were among the first to join and the Chautaugua Circle established on their return continued to meet for some twenty-five years. In '90-1 when the Circle was studying an 'English Year' a few members held an extra meeting each week for the special study of Shakespeare. The Club thus started proved so interesting that two years later we took the name of Monday Club and became a formal organization. For years the need of a public library had been discussed among us and at this time it came to a focus. The Academy Library had been destroyed by fire but the books of an extinct 'Wellsville Library Association' were at the disposal of the club. The ideas of the club were too altruistic for such narrow scope for a public library was our ideal although the impression had gone abroad that the library was to be for the sole benefit of the Monday Club and much tact was required to overcome various forms of opposition. At nearly every meeting something was done towards the promotion of the cherished idea, our state law concerning the establishment of town libraries was studied and soon we had one of the famous New York State Traveling Libraries, which, by the courtesy of the school board, was placed in one of the unused schoolrooms while the City Hall was being built. It was in charge of the Monday Club,-they were caretakers. In 1894 two hundred

dollars were received from the state for the purchase of books. This appropriation was based upon the value of the books from the old library and those donated by individuals. Of course the founding of a Free Public Library is no small undertaking. Time, toil, patience, and perseverance were required to accomplish such a work. The next year a large sum was added to the library fund by a course of lectures and the club was given the use of a commodious room in the City Hall. The public began at once to show its interest by coming in large numbers for the loan of books. Our city is now giving five hundred dollars yearly for its support and the Monday Club is custodian of the finest Free Public Library in this section of the state. At first it was open for only two days each week but since 1898 it has been open two hours each week day and three hours on Sunday as a reading room.

"During these years we have been slowly accumulating a fund for the proper housing of our library in a home of its own. Our worthy president has trained us to such habits of thrift as welcomed the smallest of additions to our store. Such modest sources of revenue as penny collections and the sale of old rubbers have not been despised while large sums have been added by entertainments or by personal gifts. Our president's significant reticence on several occasions when the library fund was under discussion led us to suspect her of cherishing a secret we might be glad to share. betrayed no other hint of it, however, until her return from Florida last year, when she announced that Mr. David A. Howe of Williamsport, Pa., a former resident of Wellsville, had offered to give \$15,000 for the erection of a library building as soon as a suitable site should be secured. You can imagine the state of mind of the Monday Club! A very desirable corner lot has now been purchased, plans for a handsome modern building have been accepted and we will soon have a permanent home for our Free Public Library which in these fourteen years has grown from nothing to 8,600 volumes, supplying some 2,000 readers in this and surrounding towns. It is the pride of our city and a factor for better conditions in our community. This is one of the victories of peace and we venture to believe develops character as certainly as if it had been wrought by martial music, swords, and guns. Our club motto has now for us a new significance, "The end crowns the work."

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON FOUNDATIONS OF MODERN EUROPE.

The following Review Questions upon "Foundations of Modern Europe" cover the entire volume, though only three chapters are assigned for study in October. Members may find it convenient to remove these pages and paste them in the book itself.

CHAPTER L. THE WAR OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE. In what respects has the influence of France in the American War of Independence been underestimated by Americans? 2. What has been true also of the English attitude? 3. Why have the French failed to emphasize this influence? 4. Why should the French failed to emphasize this influence? 4. Why should the American Revolution be looked upon as an international event? 5. Why has Europe since 1815 avoided international wars? 6. What great international wars took place in the eighteenth century? 7. What similar causes promoted the unity of Italy and the American War of Independence? 8. What ideal motives are usually attributed to the rebellious colonists in the American Revolution? Why did the Americans cheerfully join the British against the French from 1755 to 1762? 10. How did the American "Hinterland" compare with that of other countries? 11. What predictions were made regarding American secession from England? What was the true secret of American opposition to Great Britain? 13. Contrast the position of Lord Chatham after 1763 with that of Bismarck in 1866. 14. Why was France "almost more dangerous when on the defensive?" 15. Show why the course pursued by Maria Theresa in 1756 was wise and that of the French government weak. 16. How did Katharine II. of Russia show her political wisdom at about this time? 17. Why was it unnecessary for England to keep up her attitude of rancor toward Frauce?

18. Why unwise? 19. Why was the influence of the Encyclopaedists so far reaching? 20. Who was Beaumarchais? 21. By what means did he accomplish his purpose of revenge? 22. What recognition has his work received? 23. What was the strategic problem of the War of Independence? 24. Show the importance of the struggle off Cape Henry. 25. Show how battles which are not dramatic have sometimes had far reaching influences.

I. Why is the French Revolution the most important event of modern history? 2. What different forms did the Revolution assume in France and in Germany? 3. In what general respects was the reign of Louis XVI. superior to that of Louis XV.? 4. What criticism is made of the statements of Arthur Young? 5. Illustrate the fact that the different parts of France had little in common in the seventeenth century. 6. How and why had this changed by the time of Louis XVI.? 7. What effect had this upon the education of the people? 8. What significance had la grande peur? 9. What were the conspicuous qualities of Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette? 10. In what respects was Mirabeau a remarkable man? 11. Who formed the famous National Assembly? 12. What important point was carried by the third estate? 13. How was the importance of the French Revolution underestimated at this period? 14. What remarkable event took place on August 4, 1789? 15. Why did the French Revolution arouse such interest in the neighboring governments?

I. What effect did the attempted flight of Louis XVI. have upon the French people? 2. By what dangers were they menaced? 3 Why and how did the powers misconstrue the situation in France? 4. What was the famous proclamation of the Duke of Brunswick? 5. What were the September Massacres? 6. What similar illustration of the mob spirit was shown in England during

ner civil war? 7. What was the effect of the battle of Valmy? 8. What great spectacle did France present at this time? 9. How can "The Terror" be explained? 10. What important service was rendered by the Committee of Public Safety? 11. What were some of the great reforms instituted by the "Convention?" 12. What striking personalities show the tremendous energy which displayed itself in France at this time? 13. How did the army come to dominate the country?

CHAPTER IV. NAPOLEON. (I.)

I. In what respects was Napoleon a complex character? 2. Why is it impossible to estimate him truly? 3. What influence may his Corsican origin have had upon Napoleon? 4. Show how Napoleon was the natural culmination of the French Revolution. 5. Describe his personal qualities. 6. To what causes are his military successes due? 7. Why are they considered "classical campaigns?" 8. Who were some of the monarchs and statesmen pitted against Napoleon at different times? 9. What was, in general, the cause of his overthrow? 10. What influences first made him general-in-chief of the Italian army? 11. How did his genius show itself in his Lombardy campaign? 12. What influence had this success upon him?

CHAPTER V. NAPOLEON. (2.)

I. What circumstances led to Napoleon's invasion of Egypt?

What peculiar influence did Egypt exercise upon him? 3. What led him to abandon this field? 4. What victories did he achieve in the next three years? 5. By what two great processes did he help to prepare the way for German unity? 6. What work did he do for French education? 7. Describe his share in constructing the famous Code Napoleon. 8. How has the code influenced other countries? 9. Why did France receive the news of the victory at Austerlitz with relative coldness? 10. Compare the attitude of France toward Jeanne d'Arc and Napoleon. 11. When and how did the Holy Roman Empire fall? 12. How did Napoleon's victories at Jena and Auerstaedt reveal the weakness of Prussia? 13. How did Napoleon deal with Poland? 14. In what way does this seem to have been a blunder? 15. How was Prussia reorganized?

I. Why is it difficult to estimate fairly plans of Napoleon which seem unwise? 2. How long did Europe believe in the invincibility of Napoleon? 3. What may be said of England's view that she saved Europe from Napoleon? 4. What points does our author make regarding Wellington's campaign in Spain? 5. How did the Spanish in the Peninsular War dig their own grave? 6. Why did Austria declare war upon Napoleon at this time. 7. Describe the three sections of this campaign. 8. Compare Napoleon's attitude toward human life with that of other European sovereigns at this time. 9. Who was Metternich? 10. How was the sinister influence of the Hapsburgs borne out by the experience of Napoleon? 11. What can be said of Napoleon's oriental dream? 12. What principles of strategy did Napoleon consciously violate in going to Russia? 13. Why was Russia not worth having at this time? 14. What possibilities did Turkey present?

CHAPTER VII. NAPOLEON. (4.)

1. Why were the sovereigns insincere in their claim to be

liberating Europe by destroying Napoleon? 2. What countries stood together against him? Were they naturally homogeneous? 3. What two influences resulted in his fall? 4. Why was Austria's attitude toward Napoleon short sighted? 5. Why was Russia's attitude more statesmanlike? 6. What was Prussia's position at this time? 7. How did Napoleon's resources in 1813 compare with those of his enemies? 8. What strange error did he make at this time? 9. Describe the campaign around Dresden. 10. How were his attempts at peace negotiations thwarted? 11. What was the Battle of the Nations and its result? 12. Why were Napoleon's campaigns of the Seine barren successes? 13. What influences in France were working against him? 14. What different qualities of the nation came to the front at this time? 15. Illustrate the extraordinary attitude of Napoleon's friends at his abdication. 16. How did Louis XVIII. show his Bourbon characteristics? 17. How does the French Revolution compare with other great revolutions? 18. Describe the return of Napoleon and his attempt to regain the confidence of France. 19. Describe the events of June 16 and 18, 1815. 20. Why is it probable that a victory by Napoleon at Waterloo would not have saved him?

I. With what purpose did the sovereigns of Europe meet at Vienna in 1814? 2. What characteristics were here exhibited by the Prussian Humboldt? 3. At what points were the interests of the Powers clashing? 4. By what decisions did Talleyrand succeed in guiding the congress to the advantage of France? 5. What part did Metternich play? 6. Show how the unwritten legislation of the congress was its worst feature. 8. What deep laid plans did Alexander of Russia attempt to exploit at Aix-la-Chapelle? 9. How were Italy and Spain treated? 10. What was the mental state of the people in Germany and Austria at this time? 11. Describe the Greek revolt in 1829. 12. What relation do we find in Europe between political events and intellectual movements? 13. How may "classical literature" be defined? 14. How did the Romantic movement in Europe differ in general from the classical ideal? 15. Illustrate this in the case of the poetry of this time. 16. How does this same condition apply to music? 17. Illustrate in the case of Chopin. 18. How was the Romantic movement felt in philosophy? 19. What admirable results did it accomplish in historical research? 20. What great French novelist arose at this time? 21. In what does his greatness consist?

I. How and why does the attitude of France toward freedom of the press differ from that of England? 2. What caused the revolution of 1830 in France? 3. What great influence did it have upon other parts of Europe? 4. How did the character of Louis-Philippe reveal itself in various events of his reign? 5. Why was the revolution of 1848 the result? 6. What other countries at once rose in revolt? 7. What two reasons make the Hungarian revolution one of first importance? 8. What great qualities had Kossuth? 9. Give the tragic tale of the Hungarian Revolution. Why was it not a complete failure? 10. Why did the revolutions in Austria and Austrian Italy fail? 11. What scientific interest had meanwhile been cultivated in France? 12. What French thinker now turned philosophical thought in a new direction? 13. What were some of the ideas set forth in his philosophy? 14. What men

and countries have been influenced by his thinking? 15. What famous German also contributed much to the study of the exact sciences at this time? 16. Describe the influence of Darwin. 17. What were some of the unwholesome influences of this period of positive science?

CHAPTER X. THE UNITY OF ITALY.

- I. What five groups of political events in Europe belong to the years from 1851 to 1871? 2. What great changes in the position of the various powers took place in these years? 3. What striking fact is true of Italian unity in Roman times compared with Italian unity in 1871? 4. How did both Italian character and circumstances work against the unity of the country? 5. What was the policy of Cavour? 6. Why did he send Italian troops to the Crimea? 7. How did the exploit of Orsini aid Cavour's plans? 8. What was Napoleon III.'s idea of the Unity of Italy? 9. Why did Cavour acquiesce in this view? 10. What were the results of Magenta and Solferino? 11. How did Napoleon's seeming treachery affect the Italians? 12. How was the unity of the nation finally accomplished?
- CHAPTER XI. THE UNITY OF GERMANY. Why does the Roman ideal of a European nation seem unlikely? 2. Show how the different nations have gradually established themselves on the basis of a common language. 3. Describe the political confusion which existed under the Holy Roman Empire. 4. What degrading social conditions existed in Germany?
 5. Show how German unity first grew up through German literature. 6. What was the effect upon Germans of the disasters of 1805-7? 7. What peculiar national conditions have always existed under the Hapsburgs? 8. Show how the Silesian Wars of Frederick the Great have had a great influence upon Germany and Austria. 9. Compare Prussia and Austria in 1850 as to their fitness to unite Germany. 10. How did other great men in Germany prepare the way for Bismarck? 11. What were some of the personal qualities and acquirements which gave Bismarck remarkable command of the political situation? 12. How is his insight into conditions shown in his plans for German unity? 13. Against what adversaries did he have to contend? 14. What two fine qualities are noteworthy in his character? 15. Describe the war with Denmark and show how it contributed to his plans. 16. What was Prussia's attitude to him at this time? 17. How was the incompetence of Austria shown in the war of 1866? CHAPTER XII. THE FRANCO-GERMAN WAR.
- I. What criticisms have been made upon Bismarck for bringing on the Franco-German war? 2. By what considerations was he prompted? 3. What was the condition of the French army at this time? 4. Why was Napoleon III. unable to cope with the situation? 5. How did France attempt to bring on a war? 6. What can be said of Bismarck's cooperation in this attempt? 7. How did Austria act at this time? 8. What did the war prove as to French generalship? 9. How can this be accounted for? 10. What may be said of Thiers and Gambetta in this crisis? 11. What crushing terms did Bismarck make with France? 12. What was the effect upon Germany.
- I. Why has Europe no pretext at present for an international war? 2. Why does Austria survive in spite of internal weaknesses? 3. Compare Europe and America today with respect to homogeneity.

C. L. S. C. COURSE 1908-9

Foundations of Modern Europe, by Emil Reich.

SEEN IN GERMANY, by Ray Stannard Baker.

STUDIES IN EUROPEAN LITERATURE.

MAN AND THE EARTH, by Nathaniel

Southgate Shaler.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN, September, 1908, to May 1909, inclusive.

BRIEF MEMORANDA

Containing
Twenty-Five
Review Questions

To members: The following pages contain a copy of the list of questions furnished to readers who wish to review the year's course and add seals to their diplomas. They may be used by the reader for his own notes and as a record of his year's work. A duplicate of this pamphlet is mailed at the beginning of the year to all members, subscribers to The Chautauquan of course being so designated. It contains these review questions, printed on a good quality of writing paper, to be answered in ink and returned to Chautauqua Institution for credit. The pamphlet also includes the form of application for the annual certificate, and the blank for securing the "Recognized Reading" seal.

In making use of the review questions you are not required to write the answers from memory, but they shauld be given in your own language.

I. Why should the American Revolution be looked upon as

		an international event?
	2.	Why is the French Revolution the most important event of modern history?
•••	3.	What was the famous proclamation of the Duke of Brunswick?
•••	 4	In what respects was Napoleon a complex character?

	5.	By what two great processes did Napoleon help to prepare the way for German unity?
		Who was Metternich?
••••		
••••	7.	With what purpose did the sovereigns of Europe meet at Vienna in 1814?
	8.	What caused the revolution of 1830 in France?
• • • •	• • • •	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
• • • •	9.	If it is a fact that "mankind is made constant by fight," does this necessarily imply war?
• • • • •		Compare Europe and America today with respect to homogeneity.
• • • • •		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
• • • •	· • • •	
	11.	improves upon America?
	12.	Mention some of the features of the training of a German soldier.
• • • •	••••	••••••••••
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• • • •	• • • •	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •

13. What is the attitude of the German government toward scientific achievement?
14. Mention some of the unique features of the Stiftung is Jena.
15. What did Molière seek to accomplish in his comedy o Tartuffe?
16. How was it received by the community?
17. What historical foundation have the novels of Dumas?
••••••••••••••••••••••••
18. What did Zola attempt to do in the Rougon-Macquar series?
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19. What is the secret of Schiller's influence in Germany?

144		C. L. S. C. Round Table
		Why does the play of Faust possess such intense interest?
		······································
	21.	Quote some passage by Maeterlinck which shows how important he considers the life of the spirit.
• • • •		
	22.	In what locality has Sudermann placed the scenes of most of his novels?
• • • •	• • • • •	
	23.	In what different ways is modern man taxing the resources of the earth?
• • • •	• • • •	
• • • •	24.	What are the different kinds of solar energy available for man?
• • • •	2 5.	lend themselves to irrigation?
• • • •	• • • • •	

C. L. S. C. COURSE 1908-9

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WHITE SEAL MEMORANDA

Containing
Seventy-Five
Review Questions

Foundations of Modern Europe

		Great Britain?
•••	2.	Show the importance of the struggle off Cape Henry.
	••••	
•••	3.	What different forms did the French Revolution assume in France and in Germany?
• • • •		
•••	••••	What remarkable event took place on August 4, 1789?
	5-	How can "The Terror" be explained?
• • • •		

	6.	What were some of the great reforms instituted by the "Convention?"
•••	••••	
•••	~····	Describe Napoleon's personal qualities.
•••	• • • • •	
• • •	••••	
	8.	Who were some of the monarchs and statesmen pitted against Napoleon at different times?
• • •	• • • • •	
	9. 	What was Napoleon's share in constructing the famous Code Napoleon?
•••	••••	
• • •	• • • • •	
	10.	What period of Napoleon's career is marked by the congress of foreign princes at Erfurt in 1808?
•••	11.	What principles of strategy did Napoleon consciously violate in going to Russia?
• • • •	• • • • •	······································
• • •		Why was Russia not worth having at this time?
	• • • • •	

••••	13.	Why were the sovereigns insincere in their claim to be liberating Europe by destroying Napoleon?
• • • •	•	Illustrate the extraordinary attitude of Napoleon's friends at his abdication.
• • • •	• • • • •	
· · · ·		Why was the unwritten legislation of the congress of Vienna its worst feature?
		What great influence did it have upon other parts of Europe?
• • • •	• • • •	
• • • •	17.	What great qualities had Kossuth?
• • • •	18.	What was the policy of Cavour?
••••	••••	
••••	• • • • •	
••••	19.	What causes have prevented Italy from becoming a great nation?
••••	• • • •	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
••••	••••	
••••	20.	What were some of the personal qualities and acquirements which gave Bismarck remarkable command of the political situation?
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••••	••••	

21.	the war of 1866?
22.	What criticisms have been made upon Bismarck for bringing on the Franco-German war?
_	What important contributions to civilization are made by the diversity of European peoples?
24.	Seen in Germany Mention some of the common things in Germany which are owned by the government.
25.	What are some of the striking qualities of the Kaiser's character?
2 6.	How does the German type of soldier differ from his English and American counterparts?
	······································
27.	Why is it probable that no civilized workman in the world would change places with the German workman?
28 .	How has military service affected the German working-man?
••••••	

	29.	For what achievements is Professor Haeckel distinguished
••••	30.	What varied qualities has he shown in his long life?
••••	31.	What is the purpose of the Reichsanstalt?
•••	32.	How does it render service to practical mechanics?
•••	33.	What two great industries have been promoted by Dr. Abbe?
•••	34-	How is the best quality of work insured in each?
••••	35.	What are some of Germany's laws relating to ship building?
••••	36.	What progressive methods may be observed in the German schools?
• • • •	• • • • •	

150

37. What is true of the recent growth of German cities?	
38. How does the German show that he is alive to wo interests?	
••••••	• ••
Studies in European Literature 39. What event was the origin of the Song of Roland?	
•••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••••	· ••
40. What gives Montaigne's essays so high a place in Fren literature?	
	•••
41. What great historical struggle is portrayed in Vict Hugo's "Ninety-Three?"	or
42. Who are the most famous French short story writers?	••
43. How is Dumas' dramatic skill shown in his novels?	•
	••
	••
44. Of what series of stories by Balzac does Eugenie Grand form a part?	et
	••
45. Why has this story exerted such a powerful influence?	•
	••

	4 6.	What marked contrasts may be noted between the work of George Sand and that of George Eliot?
•••	47.	What were the ruling ideas expressed in George Sand's earlier books?
•••	48.	How is Zola's love of scientific realism shown in "Le Rêve" as in other of his books?
•••		
• •	49.	Of what famous plays is M. Rostand the author?
••		What are some of the characteristics which give the play Cyrano de Bergerac high rank?
••	•••••	How is Lessing looked upon at the present day?
• • •	• • • • • •	What are the teachings of Nathan the Wise?
•••	52. ·····	·······
	53-	What effect did the friendship of Goethe and Schiller have upon each of them?

		How was Ibsen influenced by the events of 1870 in Europe?
• • •	63.	What effect had "The Pillars of Society" and other plays upon the public?
• • •	64.	How have his plays set up a new standard for the theater?
•••	65.	Man and the Earth Why is man likely to remain upon the earth for a long time?
••	66.	What possibilities can we forsee in the use of wind?
••	67.	What difficulties make an "aluminum age" likely to be very far in the future?
••	68.	What increase in agricultural resources due to irrigation is likely to be brought about within the next century?
٠.		

C. L. S. C. Round Table 154 69. In what way may we be able in future to win land from 70. State some striking fact regarding the "problem of the Nile." How has man recklessly destroyed much soil that might be of use to him? Mention some of the resources of the sea which may be extended in the future. How is future man likely to become of a higher grade 73. physically? 74. What would probably happen if a comet struck the earth? What much-needed change in our methods of teaching science must come in the future?

A Short Course in Esperanto

I. Vocabulary-Grammar.

Esperanto may be compared to chess. Anyone can learn the moves of the game in half an hour, but knowing the moves does not make a chess player. Still, a great deal of enjoyment may be derived from the practice of the game even in the very early stages, and thus it is with Esperanto. You can learn Esperanto grammar in half an hour; that does not make you an Esperantist, but you can begin to read and to write at once and obtain a great deal of enjoyment while perfecting yourself until you can meet another Esperantist and sustain a conversation with him.

VOCABULARY.

a t. of adj. (p. 1) shaf abbot shef bee of fir ((journal) subscribe r maple r acid, sour Act buy d d. duration. (6) nei good-bye admire mon admonish ader adore adult to commit acr air [adultery afekt tobeaffected afer affair, business matter afrank frank a ag' act [letter agf eagle agord tune(instr.) agrabl agrecable ag' age all' garlic aln' ever : kiu who kiu ajn whoever concrete aj d. concrete ideas (p. 6) akeer to hasten akeent accent [tr. accept, akeest welcome akcipitr hawk alor pimple [pany akompan accomakr' sharp [per akrid' grass-hop-aks' axie [man akss' deliver a woaky water al to ataud' lark (bird) all other elmenals at least imenau imez alms alt high altern alternate alude allude atumet match am love [(lucifer) amas crowd, mass ambas both ambes anvil amel starch

amlk' friend aventur'adventure ampleks' extent avert warm [for avid covet, eager azen ass, denkey azet nitrogen an d. member (p. 5) anas' duck angil' cel angul' corner, babil' chatter baggitel' trific bak' bake bala' sweep angel angel angle anim' soul animi also aniserad yet, still aniser anchor ansone announce ansor goose [of anstatati instead belang' eway. swing, (tr.)
halbut stammer
haldaii soon baien' whale ban' bathe (tr.) bant' bow (of ribb.) ant'e. of pres. part. act. (p. 4) antaŭ before antiky old (hist.) bapt baptize bar bar, obstruct barakt struggle apart separate, adj.
aparten' belong
aperañ scarcely
aper' appear
apog' lean (vb.)
Agrif' April
agreb' approve
apud near, by
an' d'ollection (adj. bart' beard arbir barber barel keg, barrel bask coat tail aston' stick bat beat batal fight bed bed (garden) bedaur pity re-bet beak [gret ber beautiful, fine ben bless ar d. collection (6) arb tree art bow, fiddle arde' heron ardez' slate argii' clay benk bench ber berry best beast, asimal betst' birch (tree) bezen' seed, want bier' soods, estate bier' beer bind' bind (books) bird' bird biant' white biest' every of beautab argent' silver ark arch, bow art' art artific cunning artik joint [(p. 4) as e. of pres. tense at'c.ofpr.part.pas. ataki attack [(4) blet' cry (of beasts) blind' blind blond' fair (of hair) ataki attack [(4) atone attempt atone wait, expect atoni attentive blend fair(ot nair)
blev' blow
set' blue [riage(x)
so'd relat, by marbeat' boat
set' boat
set' boil (intr.)
ben' good
ser' bore (tr.)
sen' shore, bank est attest certify ating attain, ar-atut trump[rive at eŭ 🗀 or, all all either . . or and hear Alignet August adelcult listen bord shore, bank border border bem **autum** autumn bors' bourse, ex-ber boot [change bots] bottle boy ox grandfather rel' hazel nut even oats

brak' arm
brand' branch
brat' shelf
brid' bridle
bridle
brid' bridle
brid' bridle
brid' bridle
brid' bridle
brid' br

ees' to yield
eesn' cornflower
ees' aim, object
eend' cent (coin)
eest hundred
eest' brain, mind
eest' certain, sure
eitge' cypher, nueigar' cigar [meral
eigar' cigar [meral
eigar' sah, cinder
eits' shoe-polish
eist' shoe-polish
eist' shoe-polish
eist' circular
eit' cite, mention
eitree' lemon

ĉ lagran' grieve(tr.) lambr' room lan' cock (of a gun) ap cap aper hat apitr chapter ar for, because erietan' charlaarm charm [tan Arpent carpentry as hunt, chase 22 ast chaste at, with of chief emiz shirt en chain certz' cherry certk' coffin cerp' draw (from any source) ocease, desist

old. proximity : tie there, tie & here ia every (kind) **610**everywhere[ner ôlel in every man-Hel' boaven, sky cies everybody's cit crumple, crease ölfon' rag ölkan' chicanery ôlo everything, all ôlom all of it lout ôirkaŭ round, abôlu each, every one ôlz' chisel, carve 6j' d. masc. affoct. diminutives (p. 6) ou whether; asks

a question

D da is used instead of de after words expressing weight or measure: funte da viende a pound of meat daktil' date (fruit) dano' dance dand' dandy danger danger dank thank dat' date (time) daur' endure, last de of, from, with pass. part. by des' becoming December' Dec'ber decid' décide (tr.) dečifr' decypher dedle dedicate defend' defend degel thaw dejor' be on duty

dekily slope

dekstr right-hand deltr be delirious comand ask dens' denne, close dent' tooth

dent' tooth denunce depand' depend . the the (ju. des) the .. the) desegn' design detal detail destroy dery must, devig compel daviz device motto

dezert (the) desert dezir desire, wish DY God diabi devil

difekt to damage diference differ diffin define, des-dig dike [tine dik thick, stout dikt dictate diligent diligent Sunday H' say, tell Irekt direct, steer die' d. separ (p. 5) distant discount dispont dispose disting distinguish distr distract diven divine, guess divers' various, didivid divide [verse do then, accordingdolo' sweet dolor' pain, ache dom' house domag (it is a) pity don' give [sent donao make pre-doriot coddle dorm sleep dorn' thorn dors' (the) back dot' dowry drap' weelen cloth dras thrash dres' train (anim.) drink' drink (in ex-dreg' drug (ceas dren' drown, sink du two
dub' doubt
duk' duke [whilst
dum'during, while. dung hire(servant)

e t. ot adv. (p. 1) shon even, smooth shi'd possibility (6) eg d. abet. idea. (6) eg even (adv.) edif edify eduk educate, rear edz husband ofektiv real, actual efik have effect eg' d. increase (p.6) egal' equal r echo eff echo
eff d. place allotted to (6)
eff d. sudden or
beginning act (3)
eff ex- (who has been) eksolt exelte ekskurs' trip eksped' dispatch ekster outside eksterm'crush out ekstrem' extreme ekzamen' examine ekzempi' example ekzero exèrcise ekzil' banish ekzist'exist [mong el out of, from a-elefant elephant elekt choose [(6) om' d. propensity ombaras' puzzle ombusk' ambush enigm'puzzle[take entrepren' underentr be wearied entr' entry er' d. unit (p. 6) erar error, mistake erinat hedgehog ermit hermit erp harrow escept except estadir squadron per bope pior explore prim express st' be (verb aux.) estim' esteem
estimg' extinguish
estir d. chief (p. 6)
esafod scaffold
et' d. diminution (6) story etak house) etend extend (tr.)

evit' avoid ezek' pike (fish) fab' bean fabel' tale, story fabl fable fabrik factory facil easy faden thread fadew thread fag' beech-tree fajt' whistle fajt' file (tool) fajr' fire fak' compartment faktr' fact faktur' invoice fai' full [grains fald mow fald fold falk falcon mow, cut fals falsify fame rumour family family fand cast, melt fantour ghost far do, make faring pharyax farm takeon lease fart be (well or un-farum flour (well) facili nour (wai) facil bundle facil faci (vb.) facili jawe, gully favor favour favor favour febr fever Februar February fed' less, sediment fe'in' fairy fel' hide, fleece of happy, lucky felt felt fort rectified femer' thigh
femer'split, rive (tr.)
femestr' window
fer' iron
ferdelt' deck (ship)
ferm' shut, close
ferever' zeal
femer's reserver' feet' festival feeten' banquet fiant' betrothed fibr fibre
fid to rely upon
fide faithful fler proud fig fig [present figur image, refil son fler end, finish (tr.) fler end, finish (tr flagt' finger flew firm fle fish flear flame flank side, flank fler' smell (tr.) flat' flatter flat' yellow fleg nurse (the fleks bend [sick flict bend flict patch flict flict flict floct flake flort flower flort flow and fly (vb.) flute fetr fair (subst.) felt' fair (MEDEK,)
fel' time(threctimes
felm' hay [&c.)
felt' seal (animal)
felt' leaf, sheet
fend' found, start fent' spring, fount fentan' fountain fer forth,out,away ferges forget form forge, smithy fork fork form shape formit ant fort' strength fertile strong (to for dig [resist] fost post, stake frog strawberry frel, spawn freld of strawberry freld strawberry freld of the strawberry frend ash [son frends freemafrend raspberry frend als sweets,

franci-ale sweets, trang fringe ras hit, strike frafií bachilor fremer soreign fremer cray, mad fred fresh new frigon rogue friz dress (hair) from frost frot rub fru early frugileg rook fruit fruit fruit forebead ftiz phthisis fulg soot fulm lightning funt smoke fund bottom [ation fundament found-fundament mel funnel fung mushroom funt pound furag forage furior rage fur bungle fut foot (measure)

G gay, merry gain, garn, earn gair, gain, earn gair gaile rubber-shoe gamen' gater guard guarangur's sheat, shook gare guard newspaper guard general (military)

gent' tribe gent' knee gract' gesture glact' ice glan' to iron glan' acorn glan' glass, tumbler glat' swooth glat' swooth glit' glide, slide glot' globe gler' glory ghe gine
ghet swallow (vb.)
graf swallow (vb.)
graf throat
graf throat
graf degree
graf earl, count
grain a grain, pip
grand great, tall
grae fat
grate for grate, fat
grave frat
grave fratel (late
grave) important
graver important
graver important
graver grave
gren gran, corn
gri grue
grif slatepencil
grif slatepencil
grif slatepencil
grif slatepencil
grif slatepencil
grif grue
grif grue
grif grane (bird)
grue group
gudr tar [age
gun' group
gudr tar [age
gun' drop, drip
gut' drop, drip
gun'er ichino, go
verness [itary)
gwern' grard (milgwern' strino, go
gwern' grard (milgwern' grard (mil-

garden' garden gem' groan gem' groan gem' incommode general' general gentl' polite [adj. germ' germ å! it gilv' hump giraf' girafie gie until, as far as goj' joy, glad gu' enjoy gust' ezact, right

ta ah
hall hall
hall to chop [hall
half great room,
halacis bad exhala-

tion healt stop (intr.) hear hair harden haring herring hearly harp [less) healt skin, hairhard have [bour haven] port, harheder ivy healm' home heat (b.) her clear, glaring help help heast liver herry grass heared inherit

here' liero
hierali yestarday
hipelarit' feiga
hirun' leech [(bird)
hirund' swallow
hietrik' porcupine
ho l oh l
hodiaŭ to-day
hek' hook
hom' man
homes' honest
henne' honest
henne' hour
hent' shame
hor' hour
hord' barley
heriog' clock, w'tch
hoet' sacred host
huf' hoof
humil' humble
humour,
humour,
humo' humour,

hace' chaos hemi' chemical himer' chimera hoter' cholera her' chorus, choir

It'd instrument (6)
Ill they, them
Illumin' illuminate
Illumin' illuminate
Imag' imagine
Implit' imitate
Implit' entangle
Implit' entangle
Impression
felt, influence

In' d. feminines (6)
Inoit' provoke, incite, tease
Ind' d. worthy of (6)
Indign' indignant
Indulty' to be indulInfan' child [gent
Infot' infect
Infot' bell
Influ' influence
Ing' d. holder (p. 6)
Inleint' iniciate
Inst' ink
Inklin' inclined to
Insekt' insect
Insekt' insect
Insekt' insect

instig instigate

issest island
issest invit, abuse
issest invit, abuse
ist part part act.
intend intend ((4)
inter bet ween,
among
interes interest
interest intentine
i trig' to plot
isset intestine
i trig' to plot
isset invite
is some, anything
ism a little, some,
if' go [rather
is d. past tense (4)
ist' d. profession(5)
it'd. past part. p.(4)
is some, anyone
rest isnes, anyone
rest isnes, anyone
rest isnes, anyone

It. of the plural (a) in fact lake jacket lam already danmer January in year jen behold io lee yes lamed walnut lug yoke lugland walnut lug yoke lugland walnut lug judge luke itch Juli July lung lung to couple, harness Juny June jup petticoat, skirt just just, righteous juwel jewel

jakuz' jenlous jaŭd' Thursday jet' throw jengt' juggle jur'swear [mom'nt jus just, at the very

kan pap kadr frame kaduk frail kaf coffee kan de die tile kaj and fered book kan paper covkajur cabin, hut kaf corn (on foot) kaidren boiler kan corn (on foot) kaidren boiler kan corn (on foot) kaidren boiler kan corn (on foot) kaidren beil kan corn kaidren beil kallen pan kan kaidren pan ka

leasants' bill of exchange kamel camel kamen fire-place kamer camera kamp' field kan cane kanab' hemp kanaji' scoundrel kanap'sofa, lounge kanap sora, lounge kanari' canary kandei' candle kankr' cray fish, kant' sing [cancer kap' head kapabi capable kapel chapel kapr' goat kapt catch karaf carafe, dekarb' coal [canter kard' thistle kares caress karet carret karp' carp (fish) karton' cardboard kas' cash box kaserof stewpan kask' belmet haster castle had hide (vb.) kalitan chestnut kat cat katar catarrh katan fetter katz cause kay cave, bollow kavern' cavern kaz' case (gram.) ke that (conj.) kel' cellar kelk some, several kelner waiter kern' kernel kest' chest, box kla what kind of kial why, whereklam when [fore kie where kiel how, as kies whose kio what (thing) kie kies klu who, which Maft' fathom (ms.) idar clear, plain klas class, sort klav key (piano) kin' educated kin' bend, incline kloped take troukluz sluice (l knab boy knad to knead (ble kobekt' goblin, imp koln' wedge kok' cock koks' hip

teel neck
teelmer sausage
teeleg colleague
teeleg colleague
teelest collect
teeler collect
teeler column
teeler column
teeler column
teeler column
teener column
teener coller
teener coller
teener comma
teener commission
teener commission
teener commission
teener commission
teener commission
teener commission
teener collect of

drawers
kompar' compare
kompar' to pity
tompler obligingness
nesses keek(type)

kompost' set(type)
komprost' understand

stand
issumm' common
issum' know (be acquainted with)
issum' know (be acquainted with)
issum' condemn
issum' condemn
issum' to behave
issum'ist to conduct
issum'ist to confuse
issum'ist to rust
issum'ist to confuse
issum'ist conolude,
issum'ist c

competition (our tonsof be consciteneser' preserve tonsif to advise teneser' console tenestat' to state, establish (a fact) tenestern' amaze tenestra to build tenester' coffice com, tenetrali against teneser to suit, be

tennent to suit, befitting
tenvink' convince
tor' beart
tor'b basket
ten'd cord (music)
tenekt' to correct
ten'd cork
ten'd cork
ten'd cork
ten'd cork
ten'd cork
ten'd cork
ten'd cort, yard
ten'd cost, price
ten'd dirt
ten'd cost, price
ten'd dirt
ten'd cost, price
ten'd dirt
ten'er cotton
tentum' quail (bird
ten' to brood
tenver' cover
ten'd system
ten's grate

toran' tap, spigot trans' skull trans' creats tred' believe trom' cream [wild tres' cream [wild tres' cream [wild tres' chalk [cream tyev' burst (intrat' cry, shout terier' crime terier' crime terier' crime terier' crime tres' hook to, ding trome besides, ir addition to

someon we have 'crows turne' to croise turne' jug, pitcher turne' cross turne' raw turne' cruel turne' espe tunne' espe tunne' espe tunne' espe tunne' seep tunne' woman's cap tunne' woman's cap tunne' cookey, cake tunne' cucktoo luntum' cucktoo luntum' cucktoo luntum' pumpkin luntum' pumpkin luntum' fault, blame tunn with, kun'e

together kuniki rabbit kupr copper kur run kurao cure, treat kurag courage kurb curve **kurten**' curtain kusen' cushion kus lie (down) kutim' custom kuv tub, vat huz cousin kvankam altho'gh kvant quantity levar four [town] kvartal quarter(of kvazaŭ as if kverk calm kvin five kwitame receipt

L', in the labor' labour lao' weary, tired' labour lao' weary, tired' lao' rin plate lar' lava lag' lake lak' varnish la ke' lackey

lake'lax, diarrhœa lakt milk lamp lamp lan wool iand land, country lang tongue lantern lantern lanug' down, fluff lard' bacon lary bacou larg broad, wide laring larynx larm tear (of eye) las leave, let last last, latest lan according to latit' loud, aloud lev wash lecton' lesson led leather iegom vegetable leg law lok lick ient' lentil, ientug' freckle ieon' lion leper' bare lern' learn lert' skilful, clever leter letter, epistle lev lift, raise A he, him liber free libr book Hen' spleen Hg' bind, tie lign'wood (the subem limit (stance Hmak spail Un' flax Hngy language Hp' lip Ht' bed [alphabet] Hter' letter (of the liver supply, deliver leg' to lodge, live lek' place, locality lorg' long lorn' telescope let' draw lots iu rent iud play iui lui asleep um iui asleep [ne lum' light -i to shilun' moon lund' Monday lup' wolf tupel' hope lustr' chandelier lut solder

M

mac' unleavemed mac' chew [brend magazen' wiremagi magic[beine]

lej' May ot majesty master (profession) kler broker akul' stain, spot makzel jaw mai d.opposites (5) maigratin spite of mam breast (fem.) nen' hand ent cat manner anik' sleeve ank' lack, want ---- Sta resume to bar Tuesday k mark,stamp armer' marble art' March march artel hammer n' do mason's of mast [work tr muster (of mesh [house) in machine ttrae mattress that ripe by piece of tur-wick (niture 7 mile badger leage turkey k milk (vb.) m self, selves member memory nd order(goods)
need tell a lie rit merit [day it' put, place itt bandieraft w sea-gull w middle Brasure d I, me del boney den mien dedal almond igr migrate nii thousand War war and to threaten dop' short-sight ozot forget-mewonder [not izer misery eder moderate edes modest ok to mock of soft on money onali menk enarfr mouarch menat month

mond world monte mountain nor habit, usage morbil measels more bite mergaŭ to-mor-mort die frow [row morter mortar most general title Vi'a ref a moste, your majesty, via most e your honour mey move (tr.) mug' to rear, (wind muk' mucus [&c. mult' much, many mur wall musker muscle musker muscle musker muscle mus fly (a)

n e. of direct obj. (a) nact nation nag' swim najbar' neighbour najl' n. il [gale najting tl'nightinnap' turnip nask' give birth, naskip' be born, naskip' beget natur nature naŭ nine nauz' to sicken naz' nose ne no, not nebul fog necessary negreo business wors' he anow (nor nda no kind of lam never Mile nowhere neniel nobow nenies no one's nenie nothing neniom not a bit eniu nobody non grandson non unfailingly need nest net dean copy nev nephew ni we, us nigr black niver level [dim. (7) ni d. fem. affect.

nobl noble

nom name

nord north

nombr' number

nev new [ber Novembr Novem-

nu! well! nume' shade, hue num' cloud nud' naked nuk' nape of neck nuke' nut mul' zero [(No.) numer number nun now nur only (adv.) nutr nourish, feed

0 e e of nouns (p. 1)
she' obey - [ject
shjekt' thing, obobt'...fold, du'obl'
twofold (s. p. 3)
shetin' obstinate
eder odour, smell
ofend' offend efer to offer (as sacrifice, gift, &c.)
ofle' office (employoft' often - [ment)
ok eight [sion, case tex occur -o occaolisident' west Oktober Oktober olisident' occupy of than (p. g) ele' oil omar lobster ombr shadow mbref umbrella on' d. fractions: (3) ond wave oni one, people, they; (s. p. 3) onki uncle (4) ont e. fut. part.act. d. collective numerals (p. 3) opini' to opine opentur' handy or' gold [larity out order, regu-senden' order, (de-coration) orden order, comoref car [mand ore ear [mand orf orphan orger organ(mus.) orient' east ornam ornament es e. of fut. tense esced yawn [(p.4) est' bone est' oyster of e.fut.part.pass. ew' egg [(4)

ov egg [(4) pac' peace pacienc' patience paf' shoot, fire pag pay pag page (book) pall straw pall straw pak pack, put up pal' pale palace

palls' stake pals' touch, feel palpebr eyelid pan' bread pantaion' trousers pantoff' slipper paper particular particula par pair, brace pardon forgive parene relation parker by heart arol speak part part parti party, par-pass pass (tial passer sparrow nel passion nek Easter past paste pasteo pie asteo pie (or past to step [cattle past pasture, feed past frying-pan patr father patr to pause pag' wood-pecker
pag' wood-pecker pejzag' landscape pek' sin pekl' to pickle pel' drive, chase pelt' fur [away pely basin andeavour pend hang (intr.) pends paintbrush pend think pent to repent pentr paint per by means of perd perch (fish) perdrik' partridge pere' perish perfekt' to perfect perfid betray pergamen parch-perf pearl [ment port pearl (ment portness permit portness permit portness permit permit peach post weigh (tr.) post' plague pot' request, beg potor be roquish, play the waston play the wanton
petros of ruguan,
play the wanton
petros parafley
per weigh (intr.)
pr pious
pled foot, leg pig magpie pik prick, sting pilk balkf.playing)

pin' pine-tree pinô' pinch pinô pinch ping' pin pint pointed pip' pipe (tobacco) pipr' pepper pipr pear pirit gravel pist to pound, to pea [crush piz' pea [crush plao' public square plao' please plad' plate plafon' ceiling pland' sole (of the plank' floor [foot) plant' plant (vb.) plat flat, plain plaud' splash, clap piej most (p 3) plekt weave, plait plend' complain piet tray piezur pleasure pli more plor mourn, weep plu further, longer plug' plough plum' pen plumb lead(metal) pluv rain no apieco, at rate of pokaľ cup, goblet polic police pollgon buckwheat poly of buckwhe poly pole poly dust pom apple ponard dagger pont bridge popi' poplar-tree popol' people por for, for benefit port' door [ol pork' hog, pig port' wear, carry [of posed possess post after, behind poston'station(mil) postul' require, dopost pocket [mand post post, mail poteno mighty pov be able, can pre'evo ra'avo great grandfather pray right (adj.) precip chiefly preciz precise predik preach prefer prefer preg pray prem press premi prize pren' take pres' print (vb.) preskaŭ almost pret'ready [(prep.) prez price prezent to present

pri concerning, ab-prino' prince [out prinoip' principle printemp' spring privat' private (time pro owing to, for the sake of procent interest propes' lawsuit produkt' produce profund' deep prokrast' to delay prokelm' near promen to walk promes to walk proper propose proper (one s) own prosper succed, proviz provide prujn hoar (frost) prujn hom prun' plum prunt' to lend pruy to prove. pul flea puim' lung puty gunpowder pulver powder pulver powder pump to pump pum punish pumk! point pumt! lace pus! pus. pus! pus. put pus. put well (subst.) put' well (subst.) R rate rob [count rabate rebate, dis-rabet rabbi rabot to plane rate wheel rate beam, ray rasik' root rafan' borseradisb rafin' refine raid to ride (on horseback) (rity rait right, authoration raises cr wi ran' frog rand edge, margin rang rank, grade rap long radish rapid quick, rapid raport report rast to rake rat rat rain caterpillar ray ravish, delight ray shave re'd.again,back(s) redakci editorial office reg rule, govern regal regale regn State, realm

regul rule reg king, reign ompono reward rekt straight ref rail rem to row [chair rembur to stuff, rempar bulwark rempar' bulwark ren' kidney renkom' meet reavers' upset respond' reply rest' remain [rant restoraci restauret' net rev'dream (awake) rezultat result rib' current
ribe' to rebel
riose' obtain, get,
rib' rich [receive
rid' laugh rid laugh
rifug' take refuge
rifug' to refuse
rigard' look at
rigard' look at
rigard' reap
rilat' relate to, conrim' rhyme [cám
rimen' to notice
rimed' means
rimen' strap
rimer' strap
rimer' strap
rimer' subst.) ring ring (subst.) ripet' repeat ripoz' repose, rest riproc' reproach river' river river river riz' rice rod' roadstead romp' break rond' round, circle ronk' to snore ros' dew rost roast (anim.) rot company (mil.) rub, rubbish ruband ribbon ruben' ruby rug red rul' roll (tr.) rust' rust (tr.) ruz trick, ruse

rist trick, ruse

sabet Saturday

sabi sand

sag arrow

sak sack

sai salt

salat salat

salat salary

salit salary

sang' blood sankt' holy sap soap sark to weed sat satisted saŭo' sauce sav save [tally) sel know (menscience science solur squirrel **90** if seb grease, fat sed but seg saw seg seat, chair sekal' rye seka' dissect seka' sex seka' follow sel' saddle SOM SOW semajn' week sen without send' sense send' send sent' feel, percieve sop seven [ber Soptembr/Septem-sord search eri' series serioz' serious serur' lock,(subst.) serve 905 91X 902011 902.5011 one-self, them-selves (reflex.) elb! to hiss elb! to has eld' sit eleg' besiege sign! seal (vb.) elgn' seal (vb.) elgn'sign, token elgniff signify ellah' syllable, silable, silable syllable, silable ellen' to be silent ellen' ellen' to be silent ellen' to be silent ellen' to be silent ellen' ell allik flint stilk mint
stilk silk
stilk' silk
stmil' like, similar
simpl' simple
singuit' hiccup
einjor' Sir, Mr. sitel' bucket situaci situation skal' scale [blade skapol' shoulder-skarab' beetle skatel' small box ekerny to tence skiny slave skrib write sku' shake skuipt' scuipture skvam' scale (fish emerald emerald

sobr' sober seciet' society self thirst solf threshold

est only, alone idat soldier ion solemn ly loosen, solve w summer on' sound (subst). **≋g** dream mor give out a sound (as a bell) septr long for sort absorb sord witchcraft wild, savsert fate, lot [age pag space per kind, species pegul mirror mt experience elsper dises'spes burse, receive (money) ile spice lik ear (of corn) pin spine pin spine pinac spinach spir' breathe spirit' spirit, mind spit' in defiance(ol) spong sponge sprit wit spron spur put expectorate tabl staff (mil.) tabl station stable, stall stamp' stamp, stam'tin [mark standard flag stang pole stat' state, condistat stitch [tion ster star eterk manure stern stretch out; -if prostrate (tle starter (deathfrat-stemak stomach strab' squint strang strange strat street strat stretch strak streak, line Mr stripe, wide strig owl [streak strut ostrich ottup: tow starling under, beneath sbit' sudden er. suck d south for suffer file sufficient for suffice suffocate 🕊 🖘 juice [(tr.) koes have suc-Mer sugar (cess Mar sulphur wrinkle

sun

oup over, above suppor suppose suppr upper (adj.) supr upper, on surfur deat surfur overcont swar arrange matrimony swar to swoon swing swing (tr.)

ŝ faf sbeep šaja scom k chess ancel' shake (tr.) change (tr.) arg' load (a gun) bark load, burden **Set** to prize, like Saim foam, spray **sol'** shell, peel, rind Selk' brace (trous.) pre' joke & she, her **Slid** shield im' get mouldy ind' shingle **Sink** ham Mp ship tear, rend **Sirm** shelter **åtim**' mud **šies**' lock, fasten êmae' bearty kiss mir smear, anoint enur string ov push forward sovel shovel par be sparing plm spin pres sprinkle **brank** cuphoard **braub** screw Stal' steel Atat' State ŝtip' log of wood Stof steal **Stof** stuff, tissue **ŝton**' stone ŝtop' stop up Strump stocking tup' step ŝw shoe Suid' owe Suitr' shoulder **Sat'** shoot out(corn ŝveľ swell [&c. **Swit** perspire

tabak tobacco taber list taber table tabut plank, board tag day taller tailor take estimate

tall waist talp mole (animal) tambur drum tamen however tapet' tapestry taple carpet tas' cup (tex) tang' be fit for tavel layer ter tea ted tedious teg cover (furniture, &c.) tegreent roof tolis' weave teler' plate temp' time [(anat temp' temp' tempi cemple tem hold, grasp tend tent tent tempt, try earth term sneeze term terror tested torto d' tortoise tetr grouse tia such a tial therefore m then tie there tiel thus, so tild tickle till lime-tree tim' fear time' moth (cs tint clink of glasstie that (thing) tiem so much tir draw, pull titel title tlu that toler tolerate tomb tomb, grave tomb tomb grave tend clip, shear tendy thunder tord wind, twist torf peat term turn (lathe) tornietr knapsack tort tart tra through trab heam (of wood traduk translate traf bit, reach trait feature trait feature trait transact trans cut trankvii quiet trans across tre very trem' tremble tremp' to dip tren' drag, trail trezor treasure tri three trink' drink tritik' wheat

tro too (much) tromp' deceive trotuar' side-walk

trud force upon

trov find tru hole trank trunk, stem
tab' tube
taber' bulb
taf' tuft
tal immediately
tal tower
tare' tower
tare' tower
tare' turn (v.a.)
tare cough
tuf' touch
tuf' touch

u e. imperntive (a)
uf d. containing (?)
uf d. remarkable
for (p. ?)
uwwinder.suffix.(?)

VAKE YOAM val' valley valor be worth van' vain, needless vang check vant vain, futile vaper steam varb to recruit variof smallpox varm warm vart' nurse (child) vast' wide, vast vaz vase vojn vein vok wake, arouse sail (suhst.) velk fade volur velvet ven' come vend' sell vendred Friday venen' poison veng vengeance venk conquer vent wind ventor to air ventr belly ver' true
verd' green [birch
verg' rod -i whip,
verk' work (literverm' worm [ary) vers' verse vers pour veruk wart vesp' wasp vesper' evening vespert' bat vest' to clothe vest' waistcoat vet bet, wager

Esperanto

voter' weather [cle vetur go (by vehi-vezik blister, blad**vi** you [der viand meat, flesh vio' row, rank, turn vid' see vidy widower vig' alert vilag villag : vin' wine

vinagt' vinegar vintr' winter violet violon' violin vir man, male Virg virginal wipe glass (subviv live (stance) vizag face vizit visit, call on voć voice voj' way, road vojag voyage r call vol' wish, will volent willingly volv wrap round, vom vomit [roll up

vuel' veil vultur vulture vund wound

vort word

zon' girdle zorg care for zum' to buzz

This series of articles does not aim to be a treatise leading to the complete mastery of the language in ten lessons, but a simple statement of rules, with enough examples, and exercises to establish them firmly in the mind; their chief aim is clearness.

ALPHABET.

The letters of the alphabet are:

a, b, c, ĉ, d, e, f, g, ĝ, h ĥ, i, j, ĵ, k, l, m, n, o, p, r, s, ŝ, t, u, ŭ, v, z.

PRONUNCIATION.

Vowels.—Let the beginner make a clear differentation between the vowel sounds:—a, e, i, o, u, as uttered in the English words: par, pear, pier, pore, poor,-pronounced briskly, so that one vowel cannot, in any combination, be mistaken for another, and he will have a sufficiently correct Esperanto pronunciation of the vowel sounds. In fact, corresponding in sound to the English words, par, pear, pier, pore, poor, we have the Esperanto words: paro, a pair, a brace—per, by means of,—piro, a pear,—por, for, for the benefit, of, pura, pure.

U is used only in the combination au, and eu. AU is pro-

nounced like the ow of cow. EU like ayw in wayward.

Consonants.—The consonants are pronounced as in English with the following exceptions:

C pronounced like ts in pits, Tsar.

C pronounced like ch in choke, church.

G pronounced like g in get or go, always hard. G pronounced like j in Joe or g in George.

A pronounced like ch in loch, strong aspirate. J pronounced like y in yoke.

f pronounced like s in pleasure. S pronounced like s in so, never with the sound of z.

S pronounced like sh in show. Z pronounced like z in zone.

Therefore the Esperanto alphabet is pronounced: a, bo, tso, tsho, do, e, fo, go, jo, ho, kho, i, yo, so (with the s sounded as in pleasure), ko, lo, mo, no, o, ro, so, sho, to, u, ŭo, vo, zo. Taking care to give always the same sound to o.

The four following combinations offer some difficulty:—aj, ej, oj, uj. Let us begin with the last one. Pronounce the word "hallelujah" and separate the sound which pertains to uj, you have the correct pronunciation of the Esperanto uj. Give to a, e, o, the same finish you gave to u in uj and you have it.

Pronunciation of Words.—There are no mute letters in Esperanto, every vowel or consonant is pronounced distinctly. When two vowels or two consonants come together they must be pronounced clearly and distinctly. Every word of more than one syllable is accented on the last syllable but one. In order to separate words into syllables: I. Separate them into their grammatical elements. 2. In any element, a consonant between two vowels forms a syllable with the second vowel; if there are more than one consonant between two vowels, the first consonant belongs to the first vowel and closes the syllable, and the other or others go with the second vowel. Ex.—krajono (krah-yo-no), pencil; elemento (ehleh-mehn-to), element; malkvieteco (mahl-kvee-eh-teh-tso), restlessness; ciujara, (chee-oo-yah-ra), yearly; noktomezo (nok-to-meh-zo), midnight; trouzi (tro-oo-zi), to abuse; tiom (tee-om), as much; perei (peh-reh-ee), to perish; mallumigo (mahl-loo-mee-djo), eclipse.

Try to utter each vowel the same way every time. Of course you cannot do this. Nobody does who speaks with any fluency. Involuntarily you will pronounce a vowel ending a syllable with a shade of difference from the vowel in a syllable ending with a consonant. Do not let that worry you. And you will find a tendency to lengthen the accented vowel sometimes. That also is

harmless.

Grammar

There is one definite article, la, invariable. There is no indefinite article.

Nouns always end in o. Ex: patro—father.

Adjectives always end in a. Ex: patra—paternal.

The plural of nouns, adjectives, participles, and pronouns (except only the personal pronouns) end in j. Ex: patroj—fathers; bonaj patroj—good fathers.

The accusative (objective case) always ends in n. Ex: Mi amas mian bonan patron—I love my good father. Ni amas niam

bonajn patrojn—We love our good fathers.

Adverbs always end in e. Ex: bone—well; patre—paternally. (There are a few non-derived adverbs without the e ending, as

jam ankaŭ tiel, kiel.)

The personal pronouns are: mi—I; vi—you; li—he; si—she; gi—it; omi—one; mi—we; vi—you; ili—they. Also a reflexive pronoun si, which always refers to the subject of its own clause. All these pronouns form the accusative case by adding n.

The verb has no separate ending for persons or number.

The present ends in as. Ex: mi amas—I love. The past ends in is. Ex: Vi amis—You loved. The future ends in os. Ex: Li amos—He will live.

The conditional ends in us. Ex: Ni amus—We should love.

The imperative ends in u. Ex: amu—love! ni amu! let us love! This form also serves for the subjunctive. Ex: Dio ordonas ke m amu unu la alian—God commands us to love one another.

The infinite ends in i. Ex: ami-to love.

There are three active participles.

The present participle active is formed by ant. Ex: amanta—loving; amanto—lover.

The past participle active is formed by int. Ex: aminta—having loved; la skribinto—the man who has written.

The future participle active is formed by ont. Ex: amonta-

being about to love.

There are three passive participles.

The present participle passive is formed by at. Ex: amatabeing loved.

The past participle passive is formed by it. Ex: amita—hav-

ing been loved.

The future participle passive is formed by ot. Ex: amota-

being about to be loved.

All compound tenses, as well as the passive voice, are formed by the verb esti (to be) with a participle. Compound tenses are employed only when the simple forms are inadequate. Ex: mi estas aminta—I have loved (lit. I am having loved); vi estis aminta—I you have loved (lit. you were having loved); mi estus amita—I should have been loved.

Having read carefully the above grammatical rules a few times, let the beginner translate the following paragraph from Esperanto into English. Each word has been separated into its component parts so that all that remains to be done is to look up each part in

the vocabulary and the sense will readily be found.

PAROL-AD-J.

Ge-sinjir-o-j, mi nun dir-os al vi kelk-a-j-n vort-o-j-n esperant-e. Mi kred-as ke vi aŭd-os ke esperant-o est-as tre facil-a kaj bel-son-a lingv-o. Ver-e, ĝi est-as tiel facil-a kaj simpl-a, ke oni tut-e ne hav-as mal-facil-ec-o-n por lern-i ĝi-n. La lernant-o-j pov-as ordinar-e kompren-i, leg-i, skrib-i kaj parol-i ĝi-n en tre mal-long-a temp-o. La fakt-o ke esperant-o en-hav-as tre mal-mult-a-j-n, vokal-a-j-n son-o-j-n, kaj ke la vokal-o-j est-as ĉiu-j pien-son-a-j, est-ig-as ĝi-n mult-e pli facil-a ol la ali-a-j lingv-o-j ĉu por aŭd-i, ĉu por el-parol-i.

Mi kred-as ke mal-long-a lern-ad-o est-os sufiĉ-a por vi-n kompren-ig-i, ke la hom-o-j de ĉiu-j land-o-j pov-as inter-parol-i

esperant-e sen mal-facil-ec-o.

Mi ne de-ten-os vi-n pli long-e. Fin-ant-e, mi- las-os kun vi du fraz-et-oj-n: unu-e, por la ideal-ist-o-j, kiu-j cel-as unu frat-ec-on inter la popol-o-j de ĉiu lando, la esperant-a-n deviz-o-n "Dum ni spir-as ni esper-as."; due, por la hom-o-j praktik-a-j, la praktik-a-n konsil-o-n: "Lern-u esperant-o-n."

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I T is the general opinion that the political campaign that is now drawing to a close has been quite exceptional, and in the right direction. As had been anticipated, offensive personalities have been avoided and the discussion has been carried on a high plane. The important speeches and writings of the candidates and their respective supporters have dealt with these two questions:

Would the Republican or Democratic ticket most effectually insure the continuation and logical extension of the reforms of the Roosevelt regime?

Aside from the question of policy, is Taft or Bryan the fitter administrator?

One able editor has pointed out that all the presidential tickets this year and all the platforms are "radical." The conservatives are not represented at all, and for them the only question is which of the tickets "threatens" thèm least. That there can be no halt, no backward step in any direction, must be accepted by them as absolutely certain. The people want economic and political reform, and no party that does not command their confidence or impress them with the sincerity of its pledges has any chance of victory.

In the ranks of the independents there have been interesting developments. The drift is not all one way. Thus the New York Evening Post, the New York Times, the Baltimore Sun, the Springfield (Mass.) Republican, and some other independent or independent-Democratic organs have declared for Taft as the more judicious, experienced, "constructive" candidate. The New York World is support-

ing Bryan, and the independent organs of the West, like the Indianapolis News, the Chicago Record-Herald, the Chicago News, and others are very friendly in their comments on Mr. Bryan's utterances. On the other hand, papers that are vigorously anti-Bryan admit that he has "grown," that his speeches are more moderate and balanced, his tone dignified, his style clear, effective and persuasive. In the Democratic party there are more signs of harmony than there were in any one of the last three national campaigns, but the Republicans claim that thousands of Democrats will nevertheless vote for Taft.

Of the issues of the campaign, the tariff, the abuses of the injunction, the further regulation of trusts, the guaranteeing of deposits of the banks, and the prevention of undue and improper influences in elections have received the lion's share of attention. Mr. Bryan has definitely revived the issue of a revenue tariff, with merely incidental protection vs. a frankly protected tariff. The Republicans favor revision, but insist on adhering to the protective policy, and they advocate duties high enough to insure high wages to labor and a reasonable profit to the employers. Does the government guarantee profits to any other class of men? asks Mr. Bryan, and other critics of the plank with him; is it right to guarantee profits by law in any case? This question raises an issue as to the object and proper limits of the tariff, but alongside of it is the question which of the parties would revise the schedules as they should be revised in the interest of the consumers and the independent manufacturers.

While the campaign discussion is not lacking in spirit, the managers complain of apathy on the part of the voters, especially as regards contributions. Publicity has made many previous contributors distinctly modest, while corporations, as stated before, are prohibited from contributing by federal law. The expenditures of this campaign will be exceptionally small, but all disinterested citizens agree that this is "a consummation devoutly to be wished."

Primary Laws and Popular Rule

Several States—among them Illinois, Missouri, Kansas, and Iowa—have held direct primary elections lately to nominate governors, federal senators (the latter, of course, in a purely advisory capacity, for the legislatures alone have the legal power to elect them), legislators, and other officers. The laws were new in some instances and the voters had their first "chance" to pass directly on party candidates. The great question in the preliminary campaigns was whether these newly enfranchised voters would use their extended power and influence, or permit the machines, the bosses and the professional office holders to control the nominations as under the old system.

It cannot be said that the results were decisive from this point of view. The interest in the primaries was perceptibly and considerably greater than it had been when merely delegates to nominating conventions were chosen, but it was manifest that everywhere thousands of good citizens qualified to vote failed to appear at the polls. The former indifference, the old habit of letting the politicians and their friends settle the nominations, still proved operative. The friends of direct primaries fear that when the novelty of the system is rubbed off the indifference will tend to become even more marked, and that the machines, with their discipline and organization, will again exercise complete control.

But as to one thing the primaries left no doubt, and that is the desire of the majority for more progressive and more independent statesmanship. In Kansas, Senator Long was defeated by Mr. Bristow, former Assistant Postmaster General and fighter of graft and corruption. In Illinois, Representative Foss nearly defeated Senator Hopkins after a short and limited contest. In Iowa, the people endorsed (the late) Senator Allison for another term in the body in which he had served so long with distinction and ability, but on questions of the day they admittedly preferred the attitude of Gov. Cummins, who ran against the venerable senator. Now that death has removed the latter and closed

a notable career, Iowa Republicans are turning to Mr. Cummins as the logical exponent of their views and sentiments.

On the whole, the summer was a bad one for bosses, spoils cliques and mere partisans. The period has been one of "popular rule," of effective assertion of independence within party lines, and of repudiation of mere labels and machine products.



The Cuban Situation and Prospects

Pursuant to a program formulated last year, provincial and municipal elections have been held throughout Cuba as the first great step to the restoration of native government in the island. These elections passed off quietly, and the American authorities believe that many of the Cubans have really learned to abide by the results of honest contests and legal voting.

There were three parties in the field, the Conservative, the Gomez liberal, and the Zayas liberal. The division of the liberals into two wings or factions enabled the conservatives to capture many offices in cities where they are in a minority. Only about fifty-eight per cent. of the qualified voters went to the polls, however, and it is not clear whether the abstentions were chiefly in the liberal or in the conservative ranks. It is hoped, for the sake of the future of Cuban independence and stability, that at the presidential election, announced for next December but likely to be advanced, a full vote will be cast. A full vote will not only mean that the business and wealthy elements are taking a proper interest in government and exercising their share of influence, but also that the decision at the polls will be the decision of a majority of the voters instead of a minority.

One result of the recent election and the conservative victories is the retirement of Zayas as a candidate for the presidency and the practical consolidation of the two liberal factions. In the event of liberal unity and harmony that party, supposed to control a majority of the votes, will prob-

ably elect its candidate. If the conservatives then accept the verdict and acquiesce in majority rule, the obstacle to the surrender of the whole government to the Cuban officials will be removed.

There are still, it must be admitted, serious doubts in many minds as to the success of the next experiment on Cuban self-government. But nothing, it is apparent, would be gained by further delay at this time. Cuba has been given honest registration laws, proper election machinery and other essentials of honorable and just government. The foundation has been laid for a stable and orderly administration. If Cuba has too many disorderly men who are ready "to take to the woods" on any provocation, real or imaginary, and start insurrections and revolutions, the process of ridding her of these elements through education, severe discipline and stern suppression of lawlessness will be a much longer one than our government would now feel justified in undertaking. Hence independence is to have another trial immediately, and further developments will depend on the conduct of the natives—the workmen, the plantation laborers, the colored citizens, the ex-revolutionists.

Arbitration and Compulsion

The Dominion of Canada has an industrial conciliation and arbitration act which has received the highest praise and commendation from leading men in America and England. It applies only to the field of public utilities—railroads, lighting companies, etc.—but the intention has been to extend it if its operation should be considered as justifying extension to other fields. The act is a consolidation of some previous statutes with novel features, the most important of the latter being the provision for a public and authoritative investigation of any industrial controversy, and the prohibition of a strike or lockout pending the inquiry and the publication of the findings. The system thus differs materially from the compulsory arbitration laws of

Australasia. The right to strike or discharge is not absolutely denied; it is only restricted and suspended for a time. Instead of one court to hear all disputes a special body of conciliators or arbitrators is selected for each dispute. The idea of the act is that discussion, publicity, impartial findings and opportunity for delay and sober action cannot fail to prove a preventive of ruptures and consequent interruptions of industry.

In the recent strike of railroad machinists and other employes—the greatest that Canada has undergone—the act "failed," apparently. That is, the inquiry and the decision of the board were not acceptable to labor, and some 8,000 men struck as soon as the law permitted them to do so. It does not follow, however, that an act is a failure if it does not completely prevent the evil it is aimed at. The Canadian system of conciliation and arbitration, with its temporary prohibition of strikes and lockouts, will doubtless be judged by the experience of a number of years, and of many disputes.

Meantime reports from New Zealand indicate that compulsory arbitration is far from giving satisfaction or "preventing strikes." The government, the parliamentary opposition, the labor leaders, the newspapers seem to agree that the arbitration law has failed. Several strikes have taken place, in spite of fines and threats of prosecution, and neither employers or employes are of the opinion that these strikes were exceptional. More friction is feared, and something must be done if New Zealand is to be in reality what many have admiringly called it "a country without strikes."

Exactly what changes the system needs is a matter upon which opinions differ. The labor leaders say that more conciliation and less compulsion is the remedy. They complain of the unfairness of the arbitral court and its ignorance of industrial questions and conditions. But the government thinks that more compulsion is needed, rather than less, and proposes heavier fines for striking or locking out men and more effective means of collecting the fines. It is

willing to provide for boards of conciliation with members from the industries affected by the disputes, but it has no faith in moral means alone. Its new bill is denounced by labor as the most tyrannical ever proposed in an Anglo-Saxon parliament. Some amendments will probably be adopted, but not in the teeth of opposition from organized labor.

A. A.

The British Old-Age Pension Act

The parliament of the United Kingdom passed the Asquith old-age pensions bill, and it is now law. All agree that it is one of the most momentous pieces of legislation that the spirit of the age and the great movement for social reform have brought forth. It is true that Australia, New Zealand, and Denmark have had old-age pension systems for some years, and the act is therefore not "unprecedented." But England is a conservative country, with a hereditary upper house, a landed aristocracy and an industrial class that still believes very strongly in the "let alone" or individualistic philosophy of government. For England the measure is distinctly radical, and so it is regarded by many conservatives and independents.

Yet it passed the Commons without serious opposition, the Tories arguing but not voting against it, and the Lords by a considerable majority. In the upper house it was subjected to very severe criticism, and an attempt was made to amend it materially and limit its duration to seven years. But the Commons rejected all amendments originating in the Lords as a breach of privilege, taking the ground that measures involving the expenditure of money by the national treasury cannot be either proposed or changed in the upper house. The Lords, though denying this view of their powers, abandoned their position on the pensions bill as a matter of policy and accepted it in the form in which the liberal ministry and commons wished it carried into effect.

The pensionable age is fixed at 70, and the amount the

pensioner will receive is \$1.25 a week. Paupers and criminals are disqualified, and it is estimated that the cost of the system even as now limited will be about \$30,000,000 a year, at least. No one doubts that in the course of time the amount of the pension bill will be raised and the pensionable age lowered to 65. The Tories have for years been committed to a general pension scheme, but they contend that in order to provide means for it the fiscal system must be changed, duties must be imposed on many classes of products and the basis of taxation broadened considerably. The Liberals insist that free trade finance is not incompatible with old-age pensions and other social reforms, and they are to endeavor to demonstrate this during the remainder of their term of office. It is generally felt that this question of "finding money" for social reform will be the chief issue in the next general election in Great Britain. The Tories will take as advanced a position as the Liberals on all matters that are of vital importance to labor and to the masses of the "plain people."



Turkey as a Constitutional State

The world has been amazed and puzzled by the developments in Turkey during the past several weeks. They are as extraordinary, as dramatic and as inspiring withal as any recorded by history. Who would have predicted, and who would have believed, a few months ago the things that have come to pass in so short a period? Turkey—a constitutional state; Turkey with a representative assembly, a charter of liberties, equality of citizens before the law, a free press, a reform ministry of statesmen, of men of character and progressive spirit!

When the news that the sultan had granted his subjects a constitution—or, rather, had revived the "suspended" constitution of 1876—was first given to the world it was received with deep skepticism. "Another strategem by the crafty sultan," was the general comment. On the other hand,

many declared that even if the sultan was sincere in his step, nothing would come of it, since the people were neither ready for nor interested in constitutional government. Others feared civil war, massacre, revolt, such as followed the granting of a constitution to Russia.

But the event so far has justified the hopeful and agreeably disappointed the pessimistic and doubtful. It has been made clear, to begin with, that the sultan yielded because he found himself at his wit's end and saw no alternative. The Young Turk movement had taken hold of all the liberal-minded people; the unpaid and oppressed troops had made common cause with the reformers and constitutionalists; even the trusted Albanians, the loval subjects of the sultan, had shown signs of unrest and discontent. Moreover. the Macedonian problem was about to be reopened; the powers were pressing for reforms and the acceptance by the porte of a new program; the Christian population was in danger, and another conflict meant intervention. All of these combined to discredit the old regime, and the sultan had to choose between loss of his European provinces, disorder and mutiny on the one hand, and constitutional reforms on the other. He did not, it would seem, hesitate He granted even more than the Young Turks and other progressives had dared to hope for in the immediate future. And his choice was certainly a wise one.

It brought peace to Turkey. Only slight disturbances and a small mutiny of ultra-loyalist troops followed the surrender. On the whole the various elements of the population have behaved with wonderful self-restraint and tact. The Mohammedans have fraternized with the Christians; Greek, Bulgar, Armenian, Jew, Turk, Albanian—all have welcomed the promised new era and have preserved extraordinary calmness and trust in the beneficence of the change.

The whole western world is eagerly watching Turkey. On the East the effect has also been salutary, for the reaction on Persia seems to have been checked by the astonishing news

from Constantinople. The powers that have been considering further reforms for Macedonia and intending to exert pressure on the porte have decided to give the new regime a chance. It is hoped that the parliament and reform ministry of Turkey will deal with the complex Macedonian problem in a new spirit, and that the population of the province will meet the government half-way in the effort to eliminate violence, oppression, disorder and racial animosity.

It would be idle, of course, to speculate on the future of the Turkish experiment, especially in view of the keen disappointment of liberalism in more advanced Russia. It is to be noted, however, that some sober-minded writers who know Turkey assure the west that she is more "ripe" for constitutionalism than most of us suppose. Her educated classes, her high-born women, her army and diplomatic service are said to be intelligently in favor of freedom and integrity in public affairs, and many of the races in her population are independent, proud, strong, and fit to govern themselves.

It is interesting to glance at the history of the "revived" constitution. The London *Times* recently set it forth briefly as follows:

On his accession in August, 1876, Abdul Hamid found himself confronted with a situation of the utmost gravity, owing to the state of his European provinces and the interest taken in them by Europe, not to speak of the war with Servia and Montenegro. In the beginning of December, 1876, a European conference was held in his capital to put matters straight. It was an utter failure, and is chiefly remarkable for the attempt which the Sultan made to impress the delegates by appointing the reformer Midhat Pasha Grand Vizier and proclaiming a Constitution. By this proclamation Parliamentary institutions were set up and every sort of liberty conferred on his people. Two months, however, had not elapsed before Abdul Hamid showed the insincerity of his promises by arresting and banishing Midhat Pasha, the author of the Constitution. In the meantime the concentration of Russian troops on the Pruth assumed formidable proportions; the Protocol of London urging Turkey to disarm was received by the Porte; the European Conference in Constantinople, having proved a signal failure, broke up, and with it the Concert of Europe. The elections for the Turkish Parliament, nevertheless, took place throughout the Empire. The old edifice liament House, where, on the conclusion of a short-lived peace with Servia, the elected Deputies assembled. On March 19, 1877, the Sultan convoked them to the Palace of Dolma Baghtché and adin Stambul called Dar-el-Funun was renovated to serve as a Pardressed them in a Speech from the Throne, in which, after de-

claring the Parliament open, he reviewed the situation and made profuse promises of liberal reforms and of military and naval reorganization. On the following day the Senators and Deputies took the oath and their seats in the Dar-el-Funun and began to pre-

pare an Address in reply to the Speech from the Throne.
On April 23 Russia declared war, whereupon the Sultan telegraphed to his generals in command on the Danube and in Anatolia a high-sounding proclamation, and on May 24 martial law was proclaimed. A month later the Parliament was abruptly closed, and although it reassembled once more at the end of the year, its independent attitude again alarmed the Sultan, and he took advantage of the arrival of the British fleet for the protection of his capital against Russian advance in order to rid himself once for all of a popular institution for which he no longer had any use. The Parliament was dissolved on February 14, 1878. Even then Abdul Hamid did not venture formally to abrogate the Constitution. It was declared to be "suspended," and suspended it has remained for thirty years.

May the fate of the present experiment be happier. It probably will be, for much has happened in the world in the last thirty years, and all of a character to weaken absolutism and tyranny.





II. Danger Points Around the Globe* By Victor S. Yarros

HE international political kaleidoscope whirls and changes so unexpectedly that not even the astute specialist in diplomacy is able to foretell today what question will be "acute" and threatening tomorrow. While the unexpected does not always happen in the sphere of international relations, it happens so frequently that he who would discuss possible apples of discord or pending questions pressing for settlement must be cautious and liberal with his "ifs" and other reservations. The recent trouble between Italy and Turkey, which all but led to a naval demonstration by the former in the waters of the latter power was a surprise to the world at large; the Moroccan difficulty which necessitated the calling of the Algeciras Conference (discussed in a previous article) was the result of an impulsive and wholly unforeseen act of the German Emperor. The murder of a missionary or of a diplomatic agent here or there may beget serious complications.

Still, it is a fact that at any given historic stage certain problems may be recognized as vital and "dangerous"—as containing possibilities of conflict and storm. Having shown whereon the European balance rests at this juncture, by means of what alliances and agreements peace and relative security are guaranteed for the time being—it is necessary to inquire next what further understandings and arrange-

^{*}The first article of this series, "The European Equilibrium and the Peace of the World," by Victor S. Yarros, appeared in the September Chautauquan.

ments are necessary to remove the fear of war and render possible the much desired reduction of armaments.

Six years ago, any such inquiry would have elicited the assertion that Korea, Manchuria, India, and European Turkey were the chief danger points, and that would have been true. Today the answer is very different. Korea is practically a Japanese province, and Russia, professing a policy of "sound egotism" (to use the phrase of her minister of foreign affairs) acquiesces in the accomplished fact and hopes for friendly relations with Japan on the basis of the status quo. Persia and (indirectly) India are among the "spheres" covered by the Anglo-Russian understanding. Manchuria and European Turkey remain, however, and they are not by any means the only danger points on the political map.

Before dealing with any of these points a few words must be said regarding far more general questions that fall within the same category. Until about a year or two ago it was the fashion in British, French, Russian, and even certain American newspapers to represent Germany as a restless, disturbing, and intriguing enemy of the world's peace. She was supposed to be jealous of England and hostile to the United States. She was accused of secret sympathy with her "Pan-German" imperialists, whose literature advocates the absorption of Holland, the annexation of the German provinces of Austria, and the planting and active cultivation of German colonies in South America. She was supposed to entertain special designs in Brazil, whither tens of thousands of loyal Teutons had emigrated and where they were establishing purely German settlements. Incidentally, Germany was supposed to abhor the Monroe Doctrine and to be looking forward to a decisive clash with the American republic over the latter's claim of "moral suzerainty" in the whole western hemisphere.

Owing to various causes, these suspicions have practically vanished from the minds of thoughtful observers. "Pan-Germanism" has been disavowed by leading diplo-

matic representatives of Emperor Wilhelm and very significant articles undoubtedly of a semi-official character have been contributed by German diplomats to influential reviews to convey assurances of a non-aggressive policy on the part of the imperial government at Berlin. Particularly important was a paper which the late Baron von Speck-Sternburg, German Ambassador to the United States, published in the North American Review for March of this year. Its title was "The Truth about German Expansion" and it dealt vigorously with what it called the "fairy tales" that were circulated in some quarters regarding the alleged colonial schemes of the Fatherland. The Ambassador started out by saying:

"In the first place, it is not true that colonial expansion is a necessity for Germany, resulting from its industrial growth. The impetus given to German commerce and German manufactures is to be ascribed far more to the increase in the buying capacity of other nations—England, France, Russia, or America—than to all the German colonies combined. Germany needs no colonies; what she wants is merely free competition on all seas, the open door, and the right to coöperate freely on an equal footing with all other commercial and industrial nations, in opening up new and as yet unopened districts and markets. Hence the principle of the open door is the leading motive of the foreign policy pursued by Germany. It is the red thread that winds itself through the Eastern-Asiatic, the Oriental, and the Moroccan policy of the German Empire."

We cannot, from lack of space, quote at length from the article, but suffice it to say that it undertook to refute the assertion that Germany had any lust for territory that jeopardized either the independence of Holland and Belgium or the Monroe Doctrine.

Another supposed menace to European peace has until lately been discerned in the friction between the two halves of the Dual Kingdom, Austro-Hungary. At one time there was a disposition in Hungary to threaten secession after the manner of Norway in her former union with Sweden. Publicists gravely talked about the certain disintegration of the kingdom upon the death of Francis Joseph and the apprehension was openly expressed that in the event of such disintegration Germany would eagerly embrace the opportunity

and "gobble up" the provinces that have dominant Teutonic majorities. Well-informed writers have called Austro-Hungary the "balance-wheel of Europe" while recognizing that the personality of the aged emperor-king has kept that wheel in place and in proper motion. The consequences of an upheaval in that kingdom these writers have declared to be too appalling to contemplate.

But latterly more cheerful and at the same time more reasonable views have been expressed concerning the situation and prospects of Austro-Hungary. The death of Francis Joseph is no longer dreaded; the stability of the dual kingdom no longer seriously doubted. The concession of adult suffrage to the masses of Austria has made for national unity and national solidarity and Pan-Germanism has suffered a set-back. Hungary, too, has realized apparently that secession would be bad and dangerous from the view-point of her cherished "home rule" and her historic mission in Europe. Separated from Austria she would be a small. weak, insecure power, open to attack unless "neutralized" by the great powers. Her pride, her independence, her vital interest, it is now recognized, demand the maintenance of the union of which she claims to be the more homogenous and the more important half.

The European or American student of "world-politics," if requested to name the points of actual or possible disturbance, would undoubtedly mention "Macedonia" first. Morocco might come next, or the Far East. At any rate, Morocco is entitled to the third place as matters now stand, if not to the second, and the fourth place may be assigned to the Baltic Sea and the Aland Islands, though the last named danger point has been measurably relieved by the recent North Sea and Baltic treaties.

Concerning Macedonia, very grave language has been used by the most sober-minded of statesmen. In pressing certain reforms (presently to be discussed) on the continental powers, Sir Edward Grey, British minister for foreign affairs, has said lately that "Macedonia if it continues to be

neglected by the concert must sooner or later provoke a catastrophe." Chancellor von Buelow of Germany compared the Macedonian situation to "the elements of a conflagration which six great powers were in vain endeavoring to extinguish, since fresh fuel was always being imported from without." What, exactly, is the Macedonian problem?

It would require a volume to state and explain it, but here a few paragraphs must suffice.

As a matter of fact, there is now no such geographical or administrative entity as "Macedonia." The name is given for historical reasons to three provinces in European Turkey—Salonika, Manastir. and Kossova. This territory, bounded by Bulgaria, Albania, and the Aegean Sea, has for several decades been a veritable whirlpool, or rather a storm center, a theater of strife, bloodshed, racial conflicts, massacre, and insurrection. There is no trustworthy official estimate of the population of Macedonia, and private statisticians are widely at variance. However, impartial German investigators give approximately the following estimate:

Turks and Albans	628,000
Bulgarians, Serbs and other Slavs	2,000,000
Greeks	200,000
Rumans	100,000

These races are at war with one another, religious, political, economic and other motives inspiring their mutual hatreds and fierce contentions. In the words of von Buelow, "the sole or even the chief cause of the evil did not lie in the opposition between the Christians and the Mahommedans, but in the embittered conflicts between the different Christian nationalities, each of which was trying to secure supremacy in Macedonia, and in the event of the abolition of Turkish supremacy as large a share of that territory as possible." The Turks, including the troops stationed in the province to maintain order, oppress and maltreat the Christians, force them to pay tribute, and kill inoffensive men and women. When the brutalities cause popular revolts, the troops commit the most fiendish atrocities in the name of law



The Balkan Peninsula.

and authority. Greek, Bulgarian, and Servian bands stantly invade Macedonia and plunder and kill without mercy in the name of freedom and emancipation. A Servian statesman, in a paper which appeared in a British magazine, wrote as follows about these raids, ravages, and massacres:

"It is evident to everybody that the situation in Macedonia cannot remain much longer such as it is now. It is a disgrace not only to the Balkan nations, who are fighting each other in Macedonia by fire and sword in the sight of Mohammedans, but it is a disgrace to the whole of Christian and civilized Europe, which has for several years already allowed such a scandal to go on without any serious attempt to check it. It is a disgrace that the great powers of Europe coolly and slowly, yes, very slowly indeed, discuss how to improve the finances of Macedonia, looking quietly on the burning of villages and the slaughtering of poor peasants alternately by Bulgarian, Serbian, and Greek."

The only permanent solution of the problem would be found in autonomy for Macedonia under a governor nominated by, or with the consent of, the powers of Europe. But for this the concert of the powers is not ready. Some of them, notably Germany and Austria, do not wish to "imperil the sovereignty of the Sultan" though his sovereignty has been restricted again and again in the last several decades. They fear that the Macedonian population would be provoked to extreme resistance and the flames of war would be kindled not only in the Balkans but in Asia Minor and in India and Egypt. Half measures are therefore advocated at present, and the best observers believe that half measures will not only fail, but beget the very dangers apprehended by the powers.

Macedonian reform has been talked of since the Russo-Turkish War. In 1902 an uprising followed by atrocities on the part of the Turks led to the drawing up of a scheme which the Sultan approved "in principle" and absolutely ignored in practice. In 1903 Russia and Austria, as the agents of Europe as a whole, agreed on what is called the Mürzsteg program, which provided for European command of the Macedonian gendarmerie and for foreign supervision of the collection of the taxes. That program has been applied, but the obstruction of the Turkish officials, couplet

with the inadequacy of the power vested in the foreign agents, robbed it of all its efficacy. The outrages continued, and according to many accounts, about 10,000 murders have been committed in the provinces since 1903.

Further reforms, increased European control, and steps toward partial autonomy are now proposed. Their success is distinctly doubtful and another failure will raise the question of real and complete autonomy. That, in turn, will revive that larger question of the Turk in Europe, of the fate of the provinces of Adrianople and Constantinople. Russia will never abandon the dream of acquiring Constantinople, but will Austria acquiesce in that consummation? And what will be the position of Germany, of England?*

Moreover the interests of Italy and Austria in the Balkans are incompatible and perhaps irreconcilable. In the words of a well-informed writer, "there lies between them an abyss as broad as the Adriatic, for which they are both silently struggling." Italy would like to convert the Adriatic into an "Italian lake" and she regards Albania and the western side of the Balkan peninsula as her future sphere, her estate in reversion. She is building schools and seminaries in Albania to gain adherents among the population. Austria's Adriatic interests and claims in the Balkans arising from her position, her work in Macedonia, her control and administration of Bosnia-Herzegovina, are opposed to Italy's aspirations. Some day there will be a conflict over the Adriatic.

With the Moroccan problem as it now presents itself one must deal in the light of the Algeciras conference and the events that led up to that gathering. In a previous article, those antecedents were briefly set forth. Bearing them in mind, what is to be expected in Morocco? France has been conducting a military campaign in that kingdom

^{*}The sudden revival of the Turkish constitution has resulted in a truce in Macedonia and in a suspension of the reform efforts of the Powers. The Turkish parliament is to have "a chance" to deal honestly with the Macedonian problem. But the difficulties will be great and the result doubtful.



Morocco and Its Relation to the rest of Northern Africa.

incurring losses and sacrifices which cannot be compensated for with money, and her people have been restive and dissatisfied. Germany has been watching French operations in Morocco with undisguised suspicion and jealously fearing "a hostile move"—that is, an attempt on the part of France to establish a protectorate over the country, to occupy the capital or other important cities, and depart from the spirit of the Algeciras treaty. The French government has had to give the most unequivocal assurances of its adherence to that treaty. Yet is it no secret that the French want Morocco as a dependency and regard themselves as entitled to it by virtue of their possession of Tunis and Algiers, and it is probable that all the powers except Germany would permit her to proclaim herself the protector and suzerain of Morocco. Germany alone, then, blocks the way and forces on French statesmen a policy of equivocation and cant. When reports are circulated that France intends to denounce the Algeciras treaty and take such "independent action" as the new circumstances justify, the government repudiates themwithout satisfying either French or German public opinion.

How soon affairs in Morocco may reach a crisis, and whether France is prepared to defy Germany and appeal to the support of England and Russia, it would be rash to say. But the general feeling among impartial observers is that Morocco will remain a "sore spot" (to use a von Bülow phrase) and a source of discord until either the sword or an agreement of some far-reaching kind that shall readjust the relations between Germany and France at all points shall

finally determine the future destiny of Morocco. For even now it is sheer pretence to speak of the ancient Moorish kingdom as an independent and "sovereign state." The only question is whether it shall pass under French control or under international control.*

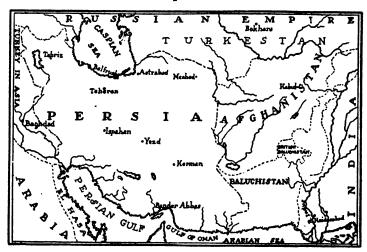
From Morocco to Manchuria and the Far East is a "far cry" but in studying danger points one is compelled to take even less than forty minutes in putting "a girdle round about the earth." The Far Eastern problem is supposed to have been solved by the Russo-Japanese War and the Portsmouth Treaty. But the better opinion is that only the first battle has been fought in Manchuria. Thomas F. Millard, one of the most impartial and vigorous writers on the Far East, says in his recent book entitled "The New Far East" that far from settling the question, the peace between Russia and China "leaves it in almost as unsettled a state as before hostilities began." He continues:

"All the old elements, with all the old cross purposes and hostilities, still remain, and are now confronted with the problem of assimilating or being assimilated by, this new force (a waking and capable Orient). The settlement is still a matter for the future. . . .

"Instead of Russia being in Manchuria, both Russia and Japan are there. Both have agreed to evacuate it is true, but then, Russia has always agreed to evacuate. . . . There is not the slightest alteration of the political status of Manchuria as a result of the war, and the general interests there remain the same as they were before."

Another competent writer, Mr. B. L. Putnam-Weale, has written a book which bears the significant title "The Truce in the Far East." He cannot see that anything has been "settled there." The "truce" he thinks will probably continue until 1915, on account of the alliance between Japan and England, but it will hardly last much longer. For not only was Russia forced to accept a humiliating peace, but, in her view, Japan has not even observed the terms of the peace treaty. To quote Mr. Weale:

^{*}The latest complications in Morocco—the change of Sultans, the duplicity of the victorious usurper, the question of his "recognition," and Germany's surprising haste in advising such recognition—emphasize the extreme delicacy of the Moroccan situation.



Persia and the Russo-Indian Frontier.

"For the time being Russia has accepted certain undeniable facts; but that the general situation can continue indefinitely as it stands at present, she does not for a moment believe. She has abated none of her ambitions; no one need doubt this for a great empire must either advance or perish. She is of opinion that Japan has gone far beyond the stipulations of the Portsmouth treaty in attempting to make Korea virtually a Japanese province. She sees that Japan, by systematizing her railway program at home and on the edge of the Asiatic continent, is taking a leaf out of her own book and is looking far ahead. Russia admits that the diplomatic conquest of Peking will have to be begun all over again and that this has become more difficult than it ever was before. But she does not despair."

Certainly many things have happened since these words were written to corroborate the view taken by Messrs. Weale and Millard. There has been serious friction between Japan and China over questions of railway building in Manchuria, of trade, of the suppression of smuggling. There has also been friction between Japan and the business interests of England and America. It has been alleged that Japan is not observing in good faith the open-door principle in Manchuria; that she is granting rebates on her Manchurian line to her own merchants and rendering it hard for others to compete with them; that she is "treading on everybody's

toes" in the whole "sphere" that the war placed at her disposal. On the other hand Russia, while affirming a thoroughly pacific policy, has decided to double-track her Siberian railroad and also to construct a new "all Russian" line to Vladivostock, avoiding Manchuria entirely and following the Amur River as was originally planned. She realizes that in the event of war with either of her pacific neighbors the Manchurian railroad will be of no use to her, and, besides, China is entitled, by the terms of her railroad agreement with Russia, to take over that line at the end of a period of years (now a little over thirty) on paying the cost of its construction plus the deficits, if any, arising from its operation. The "new China" is expected to take full advantage of this purchase clause, and Russia therefore, is seriously troubled over the future of her Pacific provinces—their defence and development.

Whether we are optimistic or skeptical with reference to China's efforts at regeneration and reconstruction, whether she continues to grow as a modern power or relapses into apathy and stagnation, the future of the Far East, or at any rate of such parts of it as have been coveted by Western nations and regarded as "spheres" of their proper influence, is extremely uncertain. Momentous changes are impending there in any event, and they may not all take place under clear skies and a condition of peace and amity.

The Western powers that are most deeply concerned in the future of the yellow Far East happen also to be the powers interested in what is called the Northern Question—the future control of the Baltic and North Seas. I have adverted in the beginning of this article to the imputation to Germany of a secret desire to annex Holland and Belgium as well as to the sleeping but not dead controversy over the old convention regarding the Aland Islands. In April last, after some delicate negotiations, related agreements were signed for the maintenance of the status quo in the regions in question. The Baltic agreement was signed by Russia, Germany, Sweden, and Denmark—the littoral powers—and



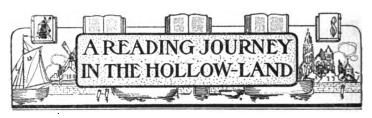
The Aland Islands and the Adjacent Countries.

the North Sea agreement by Great Britain, Germany, Denmark, France, Holland, and Sweden. The superficial view of these conventions is that they constitute another guaranty of peace in Europe, and undoubtedly they are reassuring as far as they go. Still, critical writers feel that they have not even temporarily settled the Northern Question. In the first place, Russia's pledge of 1855 not to fortify the Aland Islands, which lie off the southern coast of Finland and "threaten" the Swedish capital, was not incorporated into the Baltic agreement, which means that it is not part of the permanent status quo and may be reopened at any time. Russia has denied that she wishes to fortify the islands, but she does not deny that she finds the pledge a galling restriction of her "sovereign" right to do as she pleases on her own territory. A reopening of the question would alarm Sweden and force her to increase her naval and military forces, and England, whose interest in the Baltic is great, would advance objections.

Again, the agreements are vaguely and queerly worded. They provide that if the status quo should be threatened, the signatories should deem it their duty to enter into communication with one another in order to concert measures for its preservation. Such a phrase commits the powers concerned to nothing; in a crisis it would have little value or effect.

Finally, the treaties postpone but do not dispose of the question of the future relations between the two great empires, Russia and Germany, to the small weak states that cut them off, as has been said, from the freedom and opportunities of the sea. Holland and Belgium bar the way of Germany to effective control of the North Sea; Denmark guards the entrance of the Baltic; Norway stands between Russia and the Northeastern Atlantic. How long will the "imprisoned empires" respect the rights of the weak states? What will be the effect of the recent alliances and understandings on the "status quo" in the Baltic, the North Sea, the Balkans, the Persian Gulf?

There is, perhaps, no such thing as a "final" solution of any great territorial and international problem. States grow, decline, see other states in the places once occupied by them. Every change of moment unsettles something and brings fresh complications. But as things stand today, we can see what securities the last five years have added to the world's peace, and also what "sore spots" the developments of the period have exposed. The hope, however, is strong that in view of the steady march of arbitration, the aversion to war, the demands of the masses for internal and social reform (which if enforced would leave little treasure for warlike adventures), even the really grave and difficult questions that are still outstanding may be solved with peace and honor rather than by appeal to the sword and the torch.



II. Its Characteristics

By George Wharton Edwards

THE impression that the traveler in Holland gets is in one respect similar to that given by our own western prairie regions; and the broad, windy stretch of flat country, with comparatively few trees, and lying open to the gales of the North Sea, has a little of the same bleak air. with this is mingled a most unaccustomed aspect of novelty. These fields are cultivated with the care of suburban market gardens, and are separated by long, V-shaped ditches, through which the water runs sluggishly some feet below the surface of the ground. Looking across them, one sees broad, brown velvety-hued sails moving in various directions among the growing crops; the roadway is on an embankment, running high above the land, frequently crossing canals, lying far enough below for the well-laden barges with lowered masts to pass freely, generally without the need of draw-bridges. It will be readily understood that the dykes are a very important feature of the country and some of these are well worth examination if the visitor have plenty of time on his hands. For the most part they are composed of earth and sand and clay, kept together by willows which are carefully planted and tended. Some of the dykes, however, for example the gigantic one at the Helder, are built of masonry. Many of them are broad at the top and being paved with klinkers (brick) form very good carriage roads. The dunes or sand hills which line

^{*}Copyright, 1908, by George Wharton Edwards. The first article of this series, a brief outline of the history of Holland, appeared in the September Chautauquan.

the coast serve as the barrier against the ocean. They are systematically sown at regular intervals with a coarse, grayish green grass, which holds the sand together, preventing the wind from blowing it away altogether. Some six million guilders are spent annually by the Dutch government in keeping these dykes in order, and a special body of engineers called "De Waterstaat" is appointed to look after them. An elaborate system of drainage has also to be maintained by means of powerful engines, windmills, etc. must be remembered that the Dutch people have not only to fight against the inroads of the ocean but they have also to deal with many rivers which, taking their rise in other countries, flow through Holland for their final exit into the sea. Consequently, when there are heavy rains, say in Germany, the Rhine brings down an immense volume of water to add to the troublesome superfluity. The two principal canals are the North Holland Canal which was constructed in 1819-25 from Amsterdam to the Helder and which is forty-six miles in length, one hundred and thirty feet broad, and twenty feet deep, and the North Sea Canal, stretching from Amsterdam to the east coast, and of a width varying from sixty-five to one hundred and ten yards. Here are locks consisting of large basins, which are tremendous pieces of engineering. Their construction cost the State an enormous sum. The Merwede Canal is about one hundred feet wide and something like forty-four miles long.

The climate of Holland is similar to that of England for Spring, Summer, and Autumn, save that it is warmer in the Summer and the cold is much more severe in Winter. August is the hot month and the least preferable. During the Spring the country around about Haarlem presents an aspect of indescribable patch-works of great sheets of color. These are the tulip beds, vivid and beautiful, but the bulbs are grown for profit, not pleasure, and economy of space is carefully studied. Holland has a relatively low rainfall, accounted for by the absence of heights to attract rain-clouds. But as a matter of fact, the experienced trav-

194 Reading Journey in the Hollow-Land

eler does well to provide himself with mackintosh and umbrella, for the showers, though brief, are frequent.

The guilder, or florin is the common basis of the Dutch currency. Commonly called a guilder, plural gulden, it is always written "f" for florin, thus 65.00, f. 1.25, etc. The decimal system is used. There are one hundred cents in a guilder. The half guilder and quarter guilder are as common as our own fifty-cent pieces and quarters. The following table will be explanatory. Copper coinage, one half cent equals one-tenth of our cent; one cent equals onefifth of our cent. Silver coinage: five cents equals two cents; ten cents equals four cents; twenty-five cents equals ten cents; fifty cents equals twenty; one guilder about forty cents, two and one-half gulden about one dollar. Gold coinage, ten gulden equals about four dollars. Paper notes for five, ten, and twenty-five gulden are in use everywhere. At hotels, the English pound is valued at twelve gulden, but money changers in the large cities, generally give a few cents more.

Self-government is a part of the life instinct of the methodical Dutchman, and was at the root of the country's antagonism to Spain. With an inborn love of administering their own affairs, they combine a respect for constitutional authority and a deep reverence for their sovereign.

The country is divided into 1,100 communes—urban or rural districts. The enfranchised inhabitants elect the communal council, or "Gemeente Raad," which holds office for six years, and is presided over by a burgomaster. The latter, however, is nominated by the sovereign. In authority over the "Gemeente Raad" is the Provincial States, also a popularly elected body, presided over by a commissioner appointed by the crown. The duties of the Provincial States are administrative in their own state only. The elect hold office for six years.

Above the Provincial States are the "States General," consisting of two chambers. The First or Upper House

(fifty members holding office for nine years), receives its election from the members of the Provincial States. The other, commonly called The Chamber, is elected by the people. Over the second chamber sits a President, appointed by the Sovereign. Here all national legislative business is transacted, and bills intended to become law are prepared and sent up to the First Chamber. The latter cannot propose measures on its own initiative. The Executive or Cabinet consists of ten ministers, each chosen by the Sovereign, usually from the Lower House, for the Premier must always be a member of "The Chamber." The portfolios are as follows: Finance, Justice, Foreign Affairs, Marine, Interior or Home, War, Public Works, Waterways, Trade and Industry, Agriculture and Labor, Colonies.

In addition to governing by ministers, the sovereign elects the "Raad van Staat," a body somewhat higher than the Privy Council of England, for it has powers by which it deals with (1) government bills brought before "De Kamer" (the Lower House) and (2) private bills awaiting royal sanction. Although elected for the respective terms named above, one-third of the members of the "Gemeente Raad," the Provincial States and "De Kamer" retire automatically every two or three years, but are eligible for reelection.

The army service is maintained partly voluntarily and partly by conscription, determined by a ballot. Exemptions are allowed to sons of indigent parents and other special cases. According to the nearest authority at hand, the strength of the peace-footing is 1,950 officers and 25,000 men. For war the numbers would be immediately raised to 126,000 with 50,000 auxiliaries.

For the national budget, the following are some recent figures, omitting the cost of the army and navy which, combined, absorb only three and three-quarter millions, paid for by separate taxation. In 1904-05 expenditure exceeded income, a most unusual occurrence in Holland, but the national debt was reduced by two and one-half millions. The

196 Reading Journey in the Hollow-Land

imports are a little under two hundred millions sterling, including twenty millions from the united kingdom. The exports are 170 millions, including thirty-eight millions to the united kingdom.

Of the religion of the population of Holland, about three-fifths are Protestants and two-fifths Roman Catholics. There are about one hundred thousand Jews of whom nearly one-half are in Amsterdam. The Protestants are subdivided into innumerable sects, the chief being the Dutch Reform Church. This is the State Church but is disestablished.

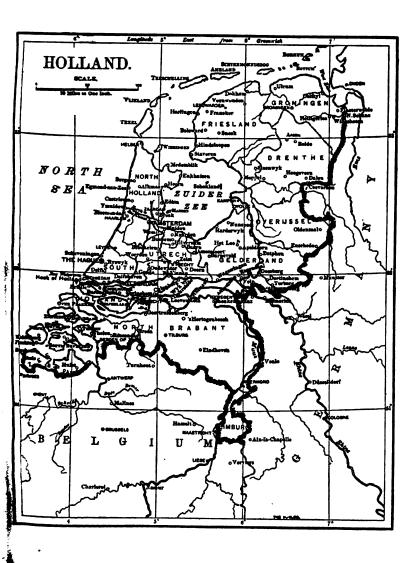
The national census of the population is taken every ten years. The following are the figures for the last three decadal periods:

December 31,	18794,013,	000
December 31,	18894,549/	000
December 31,	18995,104,	000

There are only four towns with populations exceeding one hundred thousand, namely:

Amsterdam The Hague	and	Scheven	ingen	 	250,000
Rotterdam .				 	320,000
Utrecht		. 		 	102,000

To return to the subject of money. Before going to Holland, the traveler would better make himself acquainted thoroughly with the mysteries of the Dutch coinage, and learn the coins by heart. The stranger is rather apt to treat the guilder, which is the principal coin, too much as if it were equivalent to a shilling but he will find that the balance will come out on the wrong side, as the guilder equals 1s. 8ds. Then the "dubbeltje," a silver coin, representing two-pence and looking not unlike our old-fashioned three-cent piece, long since recalled from circulation, is so ridiculously tiny that one loses sight of its real value. The following are the names of the Dutch coins now in circulation: Halve Stuyver, Stuyver, Dubbeltje, Kwartje or



Outline Map of Holland.

Vijfje, -Halve Gulden, Gulden, Rijksdaalder, Gouden Willem or Tientje. This last coin is of gold.

The traveler will say that the less said about the Dutch language, the better for him. He will probably find it as hard to make "de accents coom" as Hans Breitmann found was the case with English. But one great advantage in choosing Holland as a holiday resort is that the majority of the Dutch people know some English and as a rule they are proud of their knowledge and prefer to use it whenever possible. They appear to be able to learn foreign hanguages with great facility, for even among the lowest orders, many may be found who speak several languages besides their own. This may be partly accounted for by the fact that their own language is so difficult and so little understood out of Holland, that the Dutch in self-defence are obliged to acquire the tongues of other nations in order to compete in business. Perhaps it will not be out of place to incorporate here a short Dutch vocabulary:

Will you tell me. If you please.

Wil U mij zeggen. Als 't U belieft.

Where is
Is this
The station?
The train for —?
The booking office?
The waiting room?
The refreshment room?
The cloak room?
The baggage office?
The telegraph office?
The postoffice?
The custom house?
The boat for-?

Dutch is one of the most difficult of languages to quire, being more guttural than German, which it somewhat resembles, and it may be classed by the student as a lower Frankish dialect. According to the best authorities it existed as early as the thirteenth century. It has developed



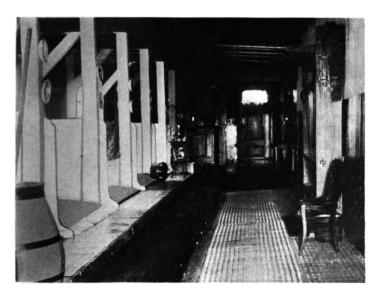
Dutch Dairy Proprietor and His Wife, at Broeck in Vaterland. See Photographs of their House-Factory on pages 200 and 201.



House, Edam Cheese Factory, and Stable all under one Roof.

a strong individuality, is expressive and devoid of the character of patois such as hampers the Flemish tongue. It has incorporated words of foreign origin less perhaps than any other of the low countries, and is of a remarkable richness and flexibility. Some words of Romanic origin will be recognized by the student, such as: Gids (guide), Rekwest (request), Kantoor (comptoir), Katoen (cotton), Kwarties (quarter). Its literature is rich and vigorous as may be recognized by the following verse from a favorite song:

Wien Neerlandsch bloed in de aderen vloeit, Van vreemde smetten vrij, Wiens hartvoorland en Koning gloeit, Verhef den zang als wij: Hij stel met ons, vereend vanzin, Met onbeklemde borst, Het godgevallig feestlied in Voor Vaderland en Vorst.—Tollens.



Stalls for the Cattle-Under Same Roof as the Living Rooms of Owner.

(Literal translation: "Let him, in whose veins flows Netherlandish blood, free from foreign stain, and whose heart glows for country and king, raise the song with us, united in sentiment, with unburdened breast, in the festal song, pleasing to God, for Fatherland, and Sovereign.")

The vowels, a, e, i, o, u are pronounced as in French, and are lengthened, but not altered in sound, by being doubled (thus oo-o); ei and ij, or y, are like the vowel sound in the French pays; au and ou like ow in now, but broader (aw-oo); eu like the French eu or the German o; oe like the English oo or the German u; ui has a sound fluctuating between oi and ow (as in now). In most other combinations of vowels each retains its usual sound. All the consonants are pronounced as in English, except g and ch, which have a guttural sound like the ch in the Scotch word loch, or the g in the German Tag; w, which is pronounced like v; j like the English y or ee; and



A Dutch Meadow.



Windmill and Canal, Holland.

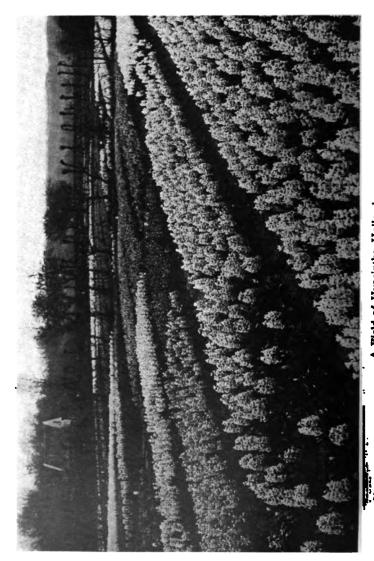
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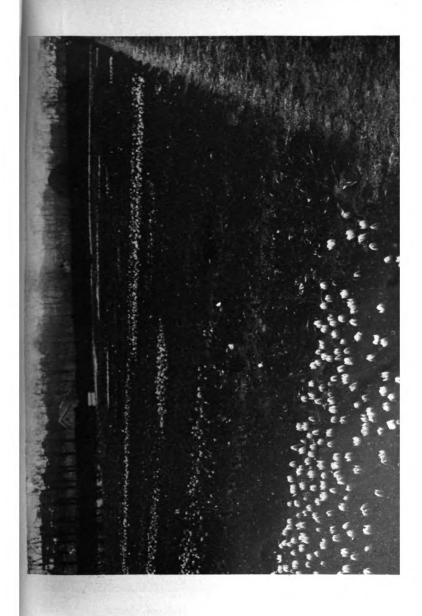
Windmills at Zaandam, Holland.



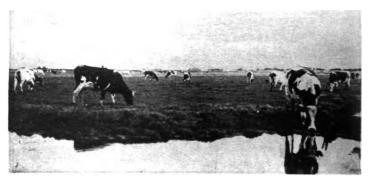
Scene on a Dutch Canal.



A Field of Hyacinths, Holland.







Cattle in the Meadows, Holland.



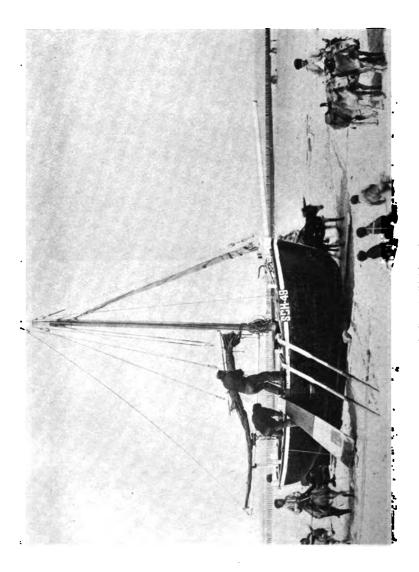
Dog-Cart, Volendam, Holland.



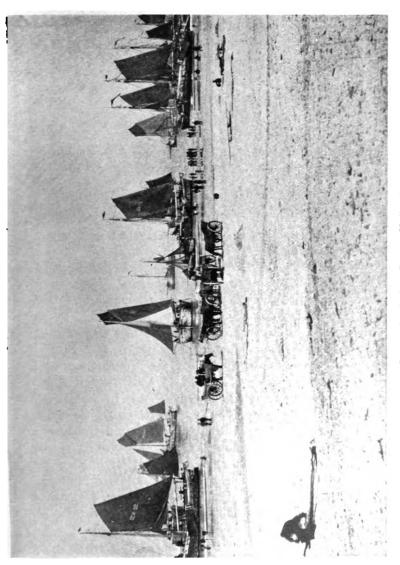
Milking the Cows, Holland.



Hollanders of the Island of Marken in Gala Attire.









The Fishing Boats at the Island of Marken.

v like f. Final n is often dropped in colloquial speech (e. g., Leyde' for Leyden).

The definite article is de for the masculine and feminine, and het for the neuter; genitive des, der, des, or van den, van de, van het; dative den, der, den, or aan den, aan de, aan het; plural for all genders de, den, de.

Amsterdam is the capital of the kingdom, and the Hague is the official residence of the Queen and Consort, although they prefer to occupy the "House in the Wood," or "Huis ten Bosche." The Netherlands are divided into eleven provinces; North Brabant, the capital of which is Hertogenbosch; Drenthe, the capital of which is Assen; Friesland, capital Leeuwarden; Guelderland, capital Arnhem; Groningen, capital Groningen; North Holland, capital Amsterdam; South Holland, The Hague; Limburg, Maastricht, Over-Yssel, capital Zwolle; Utrecht, capital Utrecht; Zeeland, capital Middleburg. Besides these provinces, the district of Luxemburg, 210,000 inhabitants, capital of the same name is a Duchy under the crown. The most important Dutch colonies in the East Indies are Java, Sumatra, Borneo, and Celebes; in the West Indies, Surinam, St. Eustache,

and Curacao; to which must be added a number of factories or state holdings in Guiana. The total area of these possessions amounts to 766,000 square miles and the population to 28-29,000,000 souls. As near as one can find out, the navy consists in the neighborhood of 150 vessels, of which only a few are of the first class, commanded by two vice-admirals, four rear-admirals, "'schouten-by-nacht," 26 captains, 35 commanders, and manned by upwards of 7,500 hands.

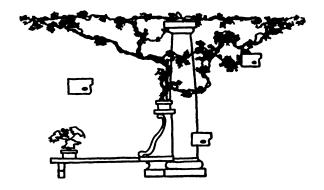
Now study a map of the country and we shall see that on two sides it is bounded by the German Ocean and on the other two by France and Germany. More than this, the latter boundaries are not made up of natural barriers; they are simply lines upon the map, passing through level districts and intersected by great rivers. Here then we might pause for a moment to see how the geographical factor has influenced this people. Although the sea coast stretched along but two sides of the country, it was one perhaps even more favorable to commerce than that of England, affording by its indentations innumerable refuges against the pirates of former days, the chief enemies of trade. This relation to the sea made of the people from the earliest time, a race of sailors. Having no mountain ranges like the Alps, no rocky fastnesses like those of Switzerland, the low countries have in all ages been subject to the incursions of their lawless neighbors. "The cock pit of Europe," is the name given to this region in modern days, from the number of battles which have been fought upon its soil. To the enormous war expenses thrust upon them is largely due the comparative decline of these once all-powerful and wealthy provinces.

Still greater has been the influence of another feature of their geographical position. Manufactures and commerce brought wealth, and with it luxury, love of art, and learning, but especially in Holland, none of the enervation which usually follows. In most lands, accumulated wealth has bred a disinclination to labor, fostering a leisured.

class, the great curse of a community. But here the time has never come when men could sit down and say their work was finished. Before them has ever stood the sea, daily and hourly threatening their existence. Their fathers made the land, but it is theirs to preserve only by incessant labor. A little crevice in their dykes, unnoticed for a few hours, might devastate a district. Even with the most watchful care, no man can go to bed at night, assured that in the morning he will find his possession safe. These conditions of life in the Netherlands must always be remembered if we would understand their history.

Everything in Holland is done in corporations. The people are a vast civic army, subdivided into brigades, regiments, and companies, all accustomed to discipline, learning the first great lesson of life, obedience. This daily contest with Nature, the regularity of life thus enforced, and the attention to minute details essential to existence, crush the romantic spirit which makes some nations picturesque. We find among them none of the wild sagas or chants of the northern people. No poet sings to them of goblins and fairy sprites. Their world is inhabited by actualities and by witches or the spirits of dead heroes. Hence, they were never highly poetical, as the English were until after the time of Shakespeare when they too became a race of manufacturers and merchants. They are not contemplative philosophers like the Germans; they dwell in no abstractions and indulge in little sentiment. Life here below has been their study; how to improve the condition of man upon this planet; how to make the home attractive by art, music, flowers, and social recreation; how to dispense justice to rich and poor alike. relieve the unfortunate, and give everyone an equal chance in life; how to protect the oppressed from other lands, keeping the conscience as well as the body free; how to teach the world that men can be rich without insolence, poor without discontent, learned without pride, artistic without

corruption, earnest in religion without bigotry. This is honor enough, as Douglas Campbell well says in his "Puritan in Holland, England, and America." Had these people also produced a Homer, a Dante, or a Shakespeare, they would have been a miracle and not a growth.





II. Rembrandt--First Article*

By George Breed Zug
Assistant Professor in the History of Art, University of Chicago.

REMBRANDT was born of well-to-do burgher parents in Leyden in 1606. As they hoped that their son would enter one of the learned professions they had him receive some instruction in Latin, but it is a disputed point whether he ever really studied in the university of his native town. He may easily have acquired through translations his knowledge of classic mythology which he shows in many pictures. Indeed very little study is necessary for a young man of Rembrandt's genius; with such as he, insight takes the place of learning. In an inventory of Rembrandt's possessions, made in 1656, only fifteen books are mentioned and those, we are told, were of a miscellaneous character. One of the books, however, was a Bible, which it seems was the master's constant companion.

His predilection for an artistic career was early apparent, and at the age of fourteen he was placed as a student under the painter Swanenburch. After three years of his instruction Rembrandt passed to the studio of Lastmann. It may be that Lastmann started Rembrandt in his study of chiaroscuro† during the short period of work under him. Little of importance can, however, be learned of the influence of these teachers of his youth. Upon leaving the studio of Lastmann at Amsterdam, Rembrandt returned to Leyden

†An Italian word pronounced Kyáh-ro-skoó-ra. The art of handling light and shade in a picture so as to produce harmony.

^{*}The first article of the series upon "Dutch Art and Artists" appeared in the September Chautauquan, the subject "Frans Hals and the Portrait."

and there settled down to a period of intense application and continual experiment which must have been the true foundation of his greatness. The earliest painting which has come down to us, "Saint Paul in Prison," of the Stuttgart Museum, bears the date of 1627. And although only a half dozen paintings executed in this and the succeeding five years are known today, yet he must have made good use of his time, for in 1632 was painted one of his masterpieces, "The Anatomy Lesson."

M. Michel, Rembrandt' biographer, has some interesting pages introductory to "The Anatomy Lesson" in which he relates the difficulty with which the more advanced Dutch scientists had had to contend in legalizing dissection of corpses. . "It was violently opposed by the nation at large, the popular disapproval being mainly dictated by religious scruples based on the doctrine of the resurrection." It was about the turn of the sixteenth century that science prevailed and dissections became legalized. Whereupon a very great interest in the subject of anatomy arose and universities and guilds vied with each other in fitting out halls or Theaters of Anatomy. What then more natural than that Dutch art, "an art always swift to observe and eager to interpret the manifestations of natural life," should find here a subject for artistic interpretation? There are many persons who base their opinion of a work of art on their interest in the subject rather than upon the artistic elements, the drawing, the color, and the handling; to such this representation of a corpse may be repulsive. To others "The Anatomy Lesson" may seem at first not deserving of high praise. Fromentin says that "the general tone is neither warm nor cold, but simply yellow;" that the handling is thin and unimpassioned;—and that "there is little richness either in the stuffs, the background or the atmosphere." It is true there is not the atmospheric effect or the magic (or the poetry of light) of Rembrandt's later style: it is true as Fromentin says that the flesh of the corpse is puffy. But consider the treatment of this subject by Rembrandt's pred-

ecessors. With them the audiences were arranged either in monotonous symmetry or in confusion, while the spectators are staring out of the picture entirely unmindful of the master and his lesson; moreover revolting details are introduced. Compare with this the simplicity and dignity of Rembrandt's treatment. Doctor Tulp is seated in a vaulted chamber; forceps in hand, he lifts the tendons of the partly dissected arm, emphasizing his remarks with expressive gesture. One is struck by the self-forgetfulness of the doctor and his disciples who seem to hang upon his words. How delicately are the heads of his hearers drawn, how expressive their eyes, how attentive their look! By the interest in these heads, the prominence of the doctor, the play of light on the features, and the diagonal position of the cadaver with the feet in shadow, all attention is drawn from the latter. One does not think of any unattractiveness in the subject.

So important did the work appear to Rembrandt's contemporaries that the picture established his reputation. He was crowded with commissions. Fellow painters, diplomats, ladies of high degree, statesmen, clergymen, and philosophers were eager to be painted by the greatest master of the time. Some of them had to wait months to obtain the privilege of a sitting. More than forty portraits have been assigned to the years between 1632 and 1634. The flatness of the uppermost head, the nearly equal attention paid to each of the disciples, the precision of drawing, the thinness of the painting, and the lack of atmosphere are all traits which point to the early period of the painter's career. And though this, his first corporation piece, was his best work thus far, he was still learning his art and was destined to pass on to still greater things. It was the commission for "The Anatomy Lesson," destined for the Hall of Surgeons in Amsterdam, which led Rembrandt to move from Leyden to Amsterdam in 1632. There in that busy mart of commerce he was increasingly successful and about 1641 he received another commission for a great corporation picture,—the so-called "Night Watch." As he became more sure of success he painted about 1640-42 a number of portraits which were not merely individualized likenesses after the manner of his earlier work and that of the Amsterdam school, but were rather artistic studies in which the face was only a note, as it were, in a harmony of color and light and shade. He occasionally worked in a more untrammelled manner, when he thought more of his art than of his sitter, when he ceased to paint mere transcripts of nature, and allowed himself to indulge his fancy and to paint as his genius suggested. It was this emancipated Rembrandt to whom there came in 1641-2 the commission to paint another of the corporation pieces in which he had achieved his success in the earlier period of comparative self-restraint.

The so-called "Night Watch" has been the subject of much discussion and difference of opinion. What is the subject and what is the idea it is intended to convey? For many years the picture hung in the meeting place of the corporation for which it was painted. Such halls were little more than tap rooms where the fumes from peat fires. the tobacco smoke of the burghers' pipes settled on the canvas, and the dirt and dust which accumulated upon it were covered again and again with coats of varnish. The result was so dark an effect that when one knows the facts one no longer marvels that the title of "The Night Watch" was given to the picture in the eighteenth century. Sir Joshua Reynolds writes of it in a way which shows he had no realization of the subject or the artistic character of the picture. It was not until late in the nineteenth century that the successive coats of dirt and varnish and repaint were removed and the real theme became apparent. Then it was discovered to be an open air scene, the sun high in the heavens casts the shadow of the outstretched hand of Captain Banning Cocq across the coat of the lieutenant who walks at his side. It is a call to arms of the Civic Guards, the captain and his lieutenant are coming forward as leaders of the party, four guardsmen whose heads appear above

those of the captain and his companion have just stepped out of the place of meeting and are raising spears and flag after having lowered them to pass through the arch, which is a part of the background (as may be verified from an old copy of the painting now in the National Gallery, London). An officer at the left is giving an order with a gesture of command, the drummer beats the signal, the members of the company are getting ready their weapons, and children rush upon the scene to participate in the excitement of the start. It is a scene of movement such as Rembrandt had often witnessed, but he treats it according to his fancy; he clothes the people in a variety of strange garments; introduces the odd squat figure of a girl in a saffron garment, and a boy in a huge helmet in the act of discharging his match-lock in dangerous proximity to the soldiers. There is in it all a certain air of strain and effort, something theatrical, and, even in its original state a use of light and shade which is too pronounced for an open air scene.

Compare this with the clarity and realism of "The Anatomy Lesson," or Van der Helst's "Officers of the Guild of Archers of Saint Adriaen," which we reproduce. This last painting and the similar picture by Hals show an even distribution of light and an equal prominence to each figure. which was what the officers desired. Hence this original treatment of a familiar subject was unwelcome to Captain Cocq and his comrades; it was objected that some of the officers were too prominent in the picture, while others were not prominent enough. The trouble was that his clients wished a series of portraits; Rembrandt preferred to produce a work of art. Hals and Van der Helst had pleased their sitters. Rembrandt with his usual independence strove only to please himself. He had produced a masterpiece of all time, a work of the imagination which was to be the admiration of artists for centuries to come; a poem in paint; but it lacked the plain prose to which his contemporaries were accustomed and it marked the beginning of his difficulties, and the waning of his popularity.



"The Anatomy Lesson." 1632. By Rembrandt. In the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam.



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"Officers of St. Adriaen's Shooting Company." By J. Van der Helst. In the Town Hall, Haarlem.



Portrait of Rembrandt, by Himself. 1640. National Gallery, London. Courtesy of the Berlin Photographic Co., New York.



Portrait of Rembrandt, by Himself. 1658. (Detail). In the Vienna Museum.

Courtesy of the Berlin Photographic Company, New York.

The Mennonite Preacher, Analo. 1641. By Rembrandt. In the Berlin Museum.





Portrait of an Old Woman. By Rembrandt. In the Vienna Museum.

Courtesy of the Berlin Photographic Company, New York.

The most brilliant criticism of Rembrandt is that of Fromentin. In his "Les Maitres d' Autrefois" he propounds the theory that in the master there were two natures which were sometimes at variance, that of a realist and that of a pronounced idealist. As a realist Rembrandt is a skilled and sane interpreter of the people as they are and an admirable craftsman, a painter of the somewhat traditional type, the author of such portraits as the "Old Woman" of Vienna (here reproduced), but of consummate skill. As an idealist he is an original genius, a visionary, a magician in light and shade. In "The Night Watch," or more properly. "The Sortie of the Civic Guard," there is a certain strange mingling of timidity and strength, according to Fromentin a conflict between the realist and the idealist. A harmonious union of these two dual natures is seen in the important corporation picture of "The Syndics of the Cloth Guild," which he painted almost twenty years later in 1661.

No small reproduction can show what a difference there is between this work and "The Lesson in Anatomy" of almost thirty years earlier. Rembrandt with his usual intellectual curiosity had been experimenting all these years; the skilful hand and the deep-seeing eye produced here what sums up his life's work; never before had he produced such a masterpiece, never again in the eight years of life remaining to him was he to conceive and execute such a work of art. The Syndics or overseers of the Guild of Drapers are represented seated about a table where they have been engaged in verifying the accounts. It is as if someone has opened a door and surprised them at their occupation. They look up at the new comer in sturdy Dutch fashion. They are dressed in black with white collars and wear tall black hats. The servant, as becomes his office, takes his place in the background. The table is covered by a cloth of rich scarlet; a wainscot of yellowish brown wood forms the background. Unlike "The Anatomy Lesson" the picture is filled with atmosphere which the Syndics seem to breathe. The picture is treated broadly, the paint is heavy and substantial, the surface is as beautiful in itself as that of any picture ever painted. The color is deep, subdued, and harmonious. Never has white been more beautifully painted; never has black been more richly translated into pigments.

When visitors to the Rijks Museum in Amsterdam stand before this painting there is a hush, for the picture, simple as it is, is solemn, eloquent, appealing, the culmination of the art of one of the masters of all time. These three great corporation pictures of which we have written should be taken as representative of Rembrandt's early, middle, and late periods, although these periods are not sharply defined the one from the other, but, rather, blend one into the other. The important thing to note is the steady progress of the master in his art, his constant increase in technical ability. in spiritual insight, and in ideality. Like other great masters of the brush he at first studied and reproduced the shapes of nature accurately and with care. He was laying the foundation of his knowledge of nature; gradually his style became broader and broader and his insight deeper. Comparison of these three great portrait groups show the three stages of his progress.

It remains to notice some of his other portraits. "Anslo Consoling the Widow," which may be taken to stand for the group of double portraits, was painted in 1641, one year before "The Night Watch." In this as in "The Shipbuilder and his Wife," and in "The Jewish Bride," Rembrandt beautifully unites two figures in thought and action. In the first named group, the minister Anslo is administering consolation to the widow from the pages of the open Bible. The expression of earnestness and the impressive gesture seem to comfort and sustain the widow. Rembrandt was gifted with the ability to suggest by a look and a movement the deeper things of life. This may be seen in the outstretched hands of "The Shipbuilder and his Wife," and in the upraised arm and alert look of the disciples in the "Christ at Emmaus." In this Rembrandt reminds one of two other

masters of other schools, Giotto and Millet. Different as they are from the painter of "The Night Watch," they too have the gift of significant gesture which may mean more than words. As he grew older Rembrandt seems indeed to have had an increasingly deeper vision. Whereas Hals interpreted the passing moods of men, Rembrandt seems in some of his later portraits to have penetrated their very souls. With this in mind compare the two portraits of himself which we reproduce. Of over fifty self portraits of the master which have come down to us, that in the National Gallery, London (here reproduced), cannot be excelled for its serene and delicate quality. It dates from 1640. represents himself as a comparatively young man leaning slightly on a stone sill. The rich color shows through a luminous atmosphere. There are the gold and amber tones with which his palette was richly stored. The gradations of color and of light shade in the flesh tints are rendered with a most delicate art, and the drawing of the eyes and nose as subtle as with Holbein. And if there is no more charming self portrait by a great artist, there is at least another more profound.

In the half length portrait of himself in Vienna the head of which we reproduce, the artist strikes a deeper note. Reference is not made merely to the broader way of painting, the fusing of colors in this Vienna head, but to the psychological interpretation of the man. This head shows the Rembrandt who has been buffeted by fortune but who retains his indomitable will. Something of this spiritual insight, this penetration is seen in the "Old Woman" of the Vienna Gallery, and in a score of other portraits as well as in many of the master's scenes from the Old and New Testament. It places him on a higher plane than that occupied by any interpreter of the external man.

The seventeenth century produced unapproachable masters of the art of painting—the Flemish Rubens, the painter of exuberant vitality and epic grandeur, the Spanish Velasquez, the creator of profound harmonies in tone and color,

and the Dutch Rembrandt, the magician in light and shade. In all there is much the same development from precise workmanship and brilliant color to breadth of handling, mellow color, and penetration of character. In all three their art is many sided; in Rubens and Rembrandt it seems to be as wide and deep as life itself. In all three there is an universality in spirit and outlook.

We have tried to suggest something of the progress of Rembrandt's art, something of his variety and skill as a painter of corporation pictures, something of his insight in his portraits. He was one of those masters who seem to love paint in and for itself, in a word he was a painter. For the rendering of form, for significant gesture, for versatility and insight he remains unexcelled. But the quality for which he is unique remains to be emphasized. He was the greatest of all masters of chiaroscuro. Whereas the Italians compose in line, and Velasquez in tone, Rembrandt composes in light and shade. Nor is that all: Leonardo and Correggio seem to employ chiaroscuro for an end in itself, but Rembrandt uses it as a means of interpretation, as a method of rendering character, as suggestive of spirituality. There seems to breathe in the paintings of Rembrandt something of the mystery which pervades our life; many of his pictures seem to be full of meaning yet inexplicable.

We defer for another paper a brief notice of some of Rembrandt's other themes, his scenes of domestic life, his religious subjects, his landscapes, and his etchings: It is as impossible to sum up the great qualities of Rembrandt in a few sentences as it is to do justice in a paragraph to Shakespeare. If the latter was myriad-minded, the master of the "Syndics" was myriad-eyed. Understanding of such geniuses takes years of study of their works, and years of contemplation of what those works tell as to their creator's development, versatility, and universality.

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In the Metropolitan Museum, New York, Museum of Fine Arts, Boston, and Art Institute, Chicago, may be seen original examples of Rembrandt's work.



Vader Cats* • By Austin Dobson

TO an uninstructed reader the homely name that heads this paper does not, in itself, suggest any special distinction. When we are informed that Jacob Cats was a native of Holland, our first impression is of some typical Dutchman, squat-figured and stolid, preoccupied with a pipe and tulips. If it be added that he wrote verses, speculation goes no farther than to conceive a minstrel of the type of Longfellow's "Cobbler of Hagenau," chirruping his songs at his work-bench, and having ever

"at his side,
Among his leathers and his tools
Reynard the Fox, the Ship of Fools,
Or Eulenspiegel, open wide."

Each of these forecasts, however, is equally at fault. As a Dutchman, Jacob Cats was one of the prominent men of his age. He had gained honor as a Greek Scholar at Leyden University; he had traveled in France and England, visiting both Oxford and Cambridge. He was an accomplished jurist; and though—as some authorities allege—he had but little success as a politician, he was, at all events, a great civic dignitary in the great days of the Netherlands. holding important office as a magistrate at Middleburgh and Dordrecht, and ultimately proceeding Grand Pensionary of Holland. He was twice Ambassador to England, being knighted on the first occasion by Charles I. When finally, at the age of seventy-two, he obtained the permission of the States to retire into private life at his country-seat of Sorghvliet-his "Sans-Souci" or "Castle-Careless"-on the Scheveningen Road, it was as a man who on the whole had de-

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The illustrations are reproduced especially for THE CHAUTAU-QUAN from the original edition of the works of Jacob Cats published in Amsterdam in 1655.

served well of his generation, and might fairly be permitted to "cultivate his garden," and write his "Reminiscences."

But if he acquired a reputation as a citizen, he earned a still greater reputation as a poet. He was a contemporary of Hooft and Vondel, and that delightful Tesselschade Visscher, of whom Mr. Edmund Gosse has given us so pleasant a portrait; and he was probably the most popular of the four. By his readers he was affectionately styled "Vader Cats;" and his collected works in familiar moments were known as the "Household Bible." His big folio was to be found by poor men's hearths and in the windows of the rich -even as Baker's "Chronicle" lay in the windows of Sir Roger de Coverley. When now we open the vast volume (i. e., Jan Jacobz Schipper's Amsterdam edition of 1655), its bulk appals us. It is a book to be approached only from the side of dimension. It is so high: it measures so much about. Not to lay stress on the blackness of the type, which is in itself portentous, it is printed in two columns,—sometimes even in three. Turning the tall pages timidly, you become conscious, in addition to a Babel of proverbs and emblems in all languages, of a long didactic poem on "Marriage" (Houwelick), which traces that institution, with abundant illustration, from maidenhood to widowhood. Then of another, and a still longer effort, entitled "Nuptial Ring" (Trou-ringh), wherein it is treated, amongst other things, of Crates and Hipparchia, of Adam and Eve, of Masinissa and Sophonisba, of Eginhard and the daughter of Charlemagne, of Jacob and Rachel (Jacob, it may be noted in parenthesis, has apparently been educated in France, for in the picture he has carved "la belle Rachelle" upon a treetrunk, and written under it "Vive L'Amour"). Then there is a pastoral romance" of "Galatea;" a poem on "Country-Life" (Buytenleven), in the frontispiece of which is a view of Sorgh-vliet, and towards the end of the book, another series of poems called cheerfully "Coffins for the Living" (Doodt-Kiste voor de Levendige). These are only part of the contents. Besides and between them are numerous other

pieces, accompanied like the rest by prefaces and sub-prefaces, by appendices, excursuses, commentaries, head-notes, shoulder-notes, side-notes, foot-notes, postscripts, and addresses to the *Lector benignus* ("goetgunstige Leser") which hedge them in on all sides. Poetry, with this Dutch poet, is not by any means a trickling rill from Helicon; it is an inundation à la mode du pays,—a flood in a flat land, covering everything far and near with its sluggish waters.

To this immoderate and incontinent effusiveness is probably to be attributed the fact that, notwithstanding their excellent precepts and praiseworthy morality, the poems of Tacob Cats do not seem to have largely attracted the translator. Report, indeed, affirms that his entire works have been "done into German;" but this would be of little service to the ordinary English reader. The French, on the other hand, have contented themselves with an imitation of the short piece entitled "Children's Games (Kinder-Spel). In our own country, multifarious old Thomas Heywood, the dramatist, paraphrased the first part of Houwelick under the title of "An Emblematicall Dialogue, interpreted from the excellent and most learned D. Jac. Catzius; which showeth how Virgins in their chaste loves ought to bear themselves." And as late as 1860 many of the emblems and proverbs were translated by Richard Pigot to accompany the "freely-rendered" cuts of John Leighton. But our concern here is less with the text than with the old copperplates which originally accompanied it, and which, fortunately for us, speak a universal language.

These, printed in the body of the page, are generally uniform in size, and surrounded by a conventional border. Many of them bear the initials or names of such well-known engravers as Hondius, the two Mathams, and Crispin van Queborn. But the main interest centers in the chief designer, Adrian van der Venne, a painter of considerable ability, and noted especially for the prodigious canvases on which, like the Frenchman Lebrun, he depicted the battles of the seventeenth century. After drifting to and fro,



Jacob Cats, Dutch Diplomat and Poet.

he seems to have settled at Middleburgh, where Cats also resided from 1602 to 1620. His brother, Jan Pietersz van der Venne, was a bookseller and publisher of the town, and for him he executed numberless book-illustrations in addition to those now under consideration. He is said also to nave possessed no mean literary talent, and to have written satirical works. It is probably a natural consequence of his modus operandi that he should reproduce his environment; and many views and memories of the capital of Zee-



Children's Games-In the Background the Square of Middleburgh.

land and the surrounding country are traceable in his com positions. Perhaps the most interesting of these is to be found in the large head-piece of the above-mentioned "Children's Games," the background of which exhibits the great square of Middleburgh, with its old Gothic houses and central clump of trees. This is, moreover, as delightful a picture as any in the gallery. Down the middle of the foreground, which is filled by a crowd of figures, advances a



The Village Dance.

regiment of little Dutchmen, marching to drum and fife, and led by a fire-eating captain of fifteen. Around this central group are dispersed knots of children, playing leapfrog, flying kites, blowing bubbles, whipping tops, walking on stilts, skipping and the like. In one corner the boys are busy with blind-man's buff; in the other the girls, with heir stiff head-dresses and vandyked aprons, are occupied with their dolls. Under the pump some seventeenth-century equivalent for chuck-far-thing seems to be going on vigor-oucly; and, not to be behindhand in the fun, two little fellows in the distance are standing upon their heads. The whole composition is full of life and movement, and—so conservative is childhood—might, but for the costume and



A Dutch Interior.

scene, represent a playground of today. No doubt it represented, with far closer fidelity the playground of the artist's time.

It is this note of literalness—this truth to what lay nearest—that constitutes the chief charm of these illustrations. Many of those to the "Emblems" are quaint with that inventive strangeness and naïve ingenuity which have a fascination apart from technical merit. But, as a rule, the artist is strongest in what he has seen. His lions are more or less heraldic; his crocodiles are badly stuffed; and his salamanders of doubtful actuality. There is no such faltering when he shows us a hammer striking a flint on a cushion, or a pair of snuffers cropping a candle, or the interior of a blacksmith's shop. What applies to the still-life applies equally to the figures. When the subject is a tailor sitting cross-legged in



Formal Dutch Garden of the Seventeenth Century.

his stall, or a woman warming her feet and gazing into the embers, there is no doubt of the reality of the studies. Some of them, indeed, are finished works in *genre*.

What would one not give for such an illustrated copy of Shakespeare! In these pages of Jacob Cats we have the authentic Holland of the seventeenth century:—its vanes and spires and steep-roofed houses; its gardens with their geometric tulip-beds, their formally-clipped alleys and arches, their shining parallelograms of water. Here are its old-fashioned interiors, with the deep fireplaces and queer andirons, the huge four-posters, the prim portraits on the wall, the great brass-clamped coffers and carved armoires for the ruffs and starched collars and stiff farthingales of the women. In one picture you may see the careful housewife mournfully inspecting a moth-eaten garment which she has just



"No one can, at the same time, love both Thetis and Galatea."

taken from a chest that Wardour Street might envy; in another she is energetically cuffing the "foolish fat scullion," who has let the spotted coach dog overturn the cauldron at the fire. Here an old crone, with her spectacles on, is cautiously proving the contents of the said cauldron with a fork; here the mistress of the house is peeling pears; here the plump and soft-hearted cheese-wife is entertaining an admirer. Outside there are pictures as vivid. Here are the clumsy leather-topped coach with its masked occupant and stumbling horses; the towed trekschuit, with its merry freight, sliding swiftly through the low-lying landscape; the windy mole, stretching seaward, with its flaring beacon fire. Here again in the street is the toy-shop with its open front



A Dutch Tailor's Shop in the Seventeenth Century.

and store of mimic drums and halberds for the martial little burghers; here are the fruiteress with her stall of grapes and melons, the rat-catcher with his string of trophies, the fowler and his clap-net, the furrier with his stock of skins. Many of the designs have also that additional interest which is universal as well as local. Such is the one to the proverb, "Between two stools one comes to the ground," or as Cats has it, "Nemo potest Thetidem simul et Galatean amare." The luckless Philander of the story has been trying to solve the problem but without success. He has been flirting among the sandhills with Thetis, who has her fish upon her head in "ocean-smelling osier;" and now



A Batavian "Marriage à la mode."

Galatea the milkmaid has come suddenly upon them in a hat which looks like an inverted basin with a tuft: and he will probably experience what is high-Dutch for a mauvais quart d'heure. Another illustrates as pertinently the adage, "It is ill hunting with unwilling hounds," although the dogs are but a detail in the landscape, and the real moral is pointed by humanity. "Griet," poor soul, shamefaced and ill-at-ease, stands awkwardly by the door-settle, looking away from the other actors in the drama, apparently her suitor and his father. By the purse in her hand we must conclude she is rich; by a certain constraint in her carriage we may perhaps also infer that she is not so well-born as her intended



"Love Asks Return."

It is, in fact, a Batavian "marriage a la mode" that is in progress, if such a word may be employed where nothing is progressing. For if the lady is simply passive, the gentleman, whose name is Claes, is violently demonstrative. He resists all efforts of his senior to bring him to the front—gesticulates wildly, and digs his right heel doggedly in the ground. He will none of her, nor all her "brooches, pearls, and owches,"—her gear and household stuff,—her rents and her comings-in.

The round cap and collar of the female figure in this picture, the short-skirt with its rigid folds and dark border,



Jacob and Rachel—The Inscription Reads: "La Belle Rachelle, Vive L'Amour."

the puffed shoulder-pieces and long chatelaine, remind us of one characteristic of these designs which might be anticipated in so observant an artist, but which not the less deserves especial mention. This is the excellence and variety of the costume. And it is not only the peasants and fish-women whose dress is faithfully reproduced, but that of the better classes is as scrupulously delineated. It would take a chapter to describe the wonderful cavaliers, with their long-plumed hats and slashed jerkins, their endless tags and aiglets and rosettes; or the sumptuous ladies with their broidered sleeves and purfled stomachers, and monumental The design inscribed "Amor, ut pila, vices exigit," which may be roughly Englished by "Love asks return," is an example of this, which is as good as any. In a "trim garden," with symmetrically-clipped trees and hedges, a gentleman and a lady are playing at battledore and shut-



A Dutch Portrait Painter of the Seventeenth Century.

tlecock. The former, whose right foot is neatly turned out after the most approved fashion, so as to show the inside of his calf, has just delivered his blow; the latter leaps lightly to return it with as much agility as may be consistent with good manners and a buckramed state attire.

There is also a certain grim side to these Dutch moralities which is not without its significance. Through the whole series it peeps out here and there; but it is more plainly manifest in the later works, when we must suppose old age to be stealing upon the writer, and busying his thoughts with Calvinistic images of mortality and decay. The illustration to one of the these—a full-page plate—is certainly a most gruesome allegory of life. A man is seen scaling an apple-tree, which clings with snake-like roots to the side of a flaming pit or well, inhabited by a fearsome and ravening dragon. About the brim of the pit a restless



An Allegory of Life.



Adam and Eve in the Garden of Eden.

bear runs backwards and forwards, eager for its prey; but rats are gnawing busily at the tree-trunk and by and by the tree, climber and all, will topple crashing in the flames. Another composition—the frontispiece to the "Coffins for the Living"—takes up two pages, and is even more impres-The scene is a kind of cemetery with magnificent sepulchral monuments, wherefrom the covers have been lifted so as to exhibit their mouldering tenants. To the right a party of richly-clad Orientals are gazing curiously at a crowned skeleton:-"Where are the riches of Croesus?" On the opposite side of the picture, a personage resembling an Eastern Mage, and a beautiful and majestic woman—perhaps the Queen of Sheba-bend wonderingly over a second tomb:—"Where is the wisdom of Solomon?" Here it is a group of soldiers that is attracted; there a group of heroes. But the main interest centers in front of a lofty canopy,

the sable curtains of which are drawn aside by grinning atomies, discovering a figure more pitiful than any in its forlorn and fleshless impotence:—"Where is the beauty of Helen?" "Was this the face that launch'd a thousand ships, and burned the topless towers of Ilium?" Surely a fruitful theme for the gray-haired sage of Sorgh-vliet, when the blast whistled keener through his wind-stripped espaliers, and the dead leaves gathered at the garden borders!

And here we close the great folio. But what a picturebook it must have been in the days when picture-books were fewer! One can imagine the Dutch children poring over it, much as Charles Lamb pored over the queer illustrations in Stackhouse's "History of the Bible." One can even fancy that their minds took a certain haunting after-color or savor from this early study, like the jar which, as Horace says, remembers its first wine. That the volume is a favorite with the distinguished Dutch artist, now naturalized among us, Sir Lawrence Alma-Tadema, is, perhaps, not remarkable; nor is it remarkable that (as Mr. Warter relates) it should have attracted the wandering and omnivorous appetite of Southey. But it is surely of special interest that it was among the first art-treasures of Reynolds, who loved it as a boy, and many of whose sketches— "done by Joshua out of pure idleness"—were copied from the gallery of "Vader Cats."

The German Kaiser

II. Impressions of Wolf von Schierbrand*.

TTTILLIAM has often given public utterance to his conviction that the most potent support of his throne is the army. It is not surprising, therefore, that he has steadily aimed at keeping that pillar of his strength perfectly under his own control. In doing this he has made use of every available means. All the year round finds him busy attending parades, manoeuvers, anniversaries of battles, birthdays of sovereign or otherwise distinguished chiefs of a number of his regiments, and delivering speeches, toasts, formal or impromptu addresses, in which he never fails to inculcate precepts and traditions of lovalty and of every other military virtue, seizing, too, opportunities thus afforded him to pay compliments to the heads of allied or friendly nations, or to express other sentiments likely to benefit Germany in her political relations. Above all, though, he fraternizes with the officers of the army at luncheons or banquets given at their barracks, to which he invites himself. His after-dinner remarks on such occasions have often astounded the world, but from his own point of view, that of Commander-in-Chief of the army, they have been highly effective, and have tended to knit still more firmly the bonds which unite the army to his person. Then there is the entire category of rewards and punishments which he, as head of the army, dispenses at will-promotions, orders, and decorations, praise or censure meted out to individuals or bodies in army orders and bulletins, confirmations, revisions or nullifications of sentences imposed by courts-martial. It will easily be understood that these varied and constantly applied means alone suffice to make the influence of the Kaiser over his army an element of surpassing force. But to all this must be added the power he acquires through

^{*}Quoted from "Germany: The Welding of a World Power," by Wolf von Schierbrand. Doubleday, Page & Co. 1902.

his "Military Cabinet." This is a bureau under his exclusive control, whose mission it is to supply him daily, by regular verbal or written reports, with that wealth of personal details about his army, and especially about the corps of officers, which enables him to know at all times the exact spirit and degree of efficiency noticeable in each regiment, even each company or squadron, and which lends to his personal relations with the army a spice of intimacy and comprehensive knowledge which is of enormous value. It is credibly asserted that the Kaiser personally knows half of the 25,000 officers in the German active army.

His "Naval Cabinet," whose scope of duties is similar, is largely responsible for his intimate knowledge of the ships and men composing the German navy. His constant visits to the naval vessels also have a share in this, and it is probably true that he knows every one of the one hundred and twenty-three vessels and 1,500 naval officers under his command. At the regular autumnal manoeuvers of the German navy he has, besides, an opportunity of testing the mettle of his ships and men.

As regards the citizen population, and more particularly the immense corps of government officials, his "Civil Cabinet," of which Herr von Lucanus is the dreaded chief, puts him in a position to acquire a great deal of similarly intimate knowledge about it. Thousands of petitions, letters of thanks, special reports, etc., reach him in the course of every year through this "cabinet" which give him a keen insight into the lives, ambitions, and aims of the middle and higher classes. The peculiar passion for titles and decorations, for which the Germans themselves have coined the word "Titelsucht" likewise furnishes the Kaiser with a strong lever by which to turn people at will. Every winteron January 18th, as a rule—the so-called "Ordensfest," or Fete of Decorations, is celebrated at the Berlin court, when between 5,000 and 8,000 newly decorated citizens, drawn from every walk of life, are invited to court, file before the Kaiser and his consort, and are subsequently regaled in a number of the most splendid apartments of the Old

Castle, and affably treated by a large and gorgeously attired body of flunkeys. Thus an indelibly sweet and powerful impression is left on the minds of this heterogeneous multitude, largely composed of unsophisticated and intensely loval denizens of rural districts or smaller towns. official organ of the empire on the afternoon of that day publishes a special edition, containing on a score of quarto pages the full names, callings, etc., of all these happy persons, together with a minute classification of the decorations and medals awarded, and all the newspapers in the empire reprint the list, wholly or in part. The present Kaiser has used this quite inexpensive but very effective mode of rewarding loyal subjects with steadily increasing lavishness, and has invented a number of new decorations. besides. He indulges the ambition for titles with like generosity and with like effect.

By vastly increasing the splendors of his court the Kaiser has also materially heightened his personal influence. The simple and unostentatious manners and customs prevailing at the Berlin court during the days of William I. have been superseded by an elaborateness of ceremonial, a brilliancy of appointments and costumes, and a display of taste and refined luxury which rival, and in some features even surpass, the elegancies of the Tuileries under Napoleon III. The exterior and interior of Berlin Castle, and of several other royal homes belonging to the Prussian monarchs, have been renovated and embellished, and connoisseurs claim that the so-called White Hall in Berlin Castle, in its new guise, is the most beautiful and chaste extant. The banquets given by the Kaiser on grand days enjoy a deservedly high reputation among European diplomats, and the royal cellars are unequaled today in any capital. pressure to attend the Berlin court festivities has on account of all this become stronger every year, as the list of festivities has been published by the chief court marshal, and even many distinguished strangers have strenuously exerted themselves to that end. But in like ratio has the Kaiser's tendency increased to render these festivities exclusive.

All these means used by the Kaiser to extend and strengthen his influence on every class of the population are legitimate. But some other means he uses are open to serious objection, for they amount to nothing less than an overriding of the constitution. It was Bismarck who drew up this fundamental instrument, and it contains provisions clearly defining not alone the powers and prerogatives of the Emperor, but also those of the Imperial Chancellor, One of these provisions is to the effect that every public utterance of the Emperor, oral or written, must receive the sanction of the Imperial Chancellor to acquire the chara government acter of emanation. Without such utterances are to be considered merely as private enunciations, having no binding force sovereign, the government, or the nation. stitution provides that every document signed or written by the Emperor in his public capacity must have the countersignature of the Imperial Chancellor, whereby he, the Chancellor, assumes the responsibility for it toward the nation and its representatives in Bundesrath and Reichstag, and becomes amenable to them. Bismarck in his Memoirs says that the intent was to render the Chancellor alone responsible, he having identified himself with the monarch's act or expression by his signature, and thus "shield" the sovereign; the further inference being that if it becomes manifest at any time that the nation, through the majority of its representatives, disapproves of measures or opinions thus endorsed by the Chancellor, the sovereign has the simple remedy of dismissing the Chancellor and appointing a successor -which would be the pure parliamentary form of government.

This important provision of the German constitution has been practically nullified by the Kaiser for many years past. He has declared himself in favor of projects or pending measures; he has proclaimed a new policy, or an important alteration in an old one; he has launched the ship of state into the troubled waters of a dangerous adventure,

without even first consulting with his Chancellor. This he did throughout the Hohenlohe regime, and he has done it on several occasions since the present Chancellor came into power. The seizure of Kiaochou was a step undertaken not alone without the knowledge of the Chancellor, but directly against his will. If Germany at that time had become involved in war with China, that war would have been due to a flagrant violation of the constitution by the Kaiser. Public declarations have been made scores of times by the Kaiser, condemning or approving men and measures, without previous consultation with his Chancellors. while thus ignoring the constitution himself, the Kaiser has, when such utterances of his were adversely criticised, taken advantage of the existing very illiberal judicial practice, in prosecuting such critics whom he, on a conspicuous occasion, styled "Norgler" (fault-finder), and whom he advised to "shake the dust of the fatherland off their shoes." If these utterances of his had been made with the consent, or over the signature, of the Imperial Chancellor, they would have become fit subjects for criticism within reasonable bounds. But by this doubly unfair proceeding on the Kaiser's part neither the Reichstag nor the nation at large is permitted to pronounce public judgment on his sayings and doings.

Again, the Kaiser has, contrary to the constitution, practically monopolized the direction of the foreign policy of Germany for many years—in fact, ever since the retirement of Bismarck. The empire's foreign policy, by the explicit terms of the constitution, is left wholly to the Chancellor. If the Kaiser be not satisfied with the Chancellor's foreign policy, he can dismiss him. But the Kaiser found it more to his taste to shape the empire's policy entirely according to his own ideas, making the Chancellor, at least in this important respect, a mere figurehead. Bismarck, with whom he first tried these tactics, would not submit and was retired. Caprivi, a soldier before being a statesman, and regarding the Kaiser solely as his commander-in-chief, obeyed blindly. Hohenlohe, who was of a different moral and in-

tellectual fibre, disliked being thus cavalierly treated, and finally resigned. How long von Buelow will submit to this treatment remains to be seen.

It is the personal influence of the Kaiser which is most potent. His forceful personality simply compels attention. For years after his accession millions of Germans stood aloof, ignoring his kaleidoscopic activity, and firmly believing that after he had "sown his wild oats," and after the novelty of the situation into which he had been summoned so unexpectedly had worn off, he would cease his pyrotechnic interference in every phase of public life. But these wouldbe "indifferents" were forced to abandon their attitude. When, after one of his speeches, often ill-advised, flambovant and overshooting the mark, but always striking and earnest, the press of the whole world would be ringing with comment, and at every German fireside heated discussions pro and con would take place, these sober-minded Germans while still condemning his methods, found it impossible to stand supinely aside. The Kaiser, on every weighty problem that came to the surface for solution would split the nation into two hostile camps, stimulating discussion and keeping both adherents and opponents of his views at fever heat. It is this sensational side of his personal influence, probably more than any other, which has been, and is still being, felt most strongly. Into every political campaign in Germany he has thrown firebrands in the shape of mottoes, pithy and apt sayings, sarcastic allusions, or ironical retorts to his adversaries. Every weapon of warfare has been successfully employed by him.

Now and then he has been checkmated, or even defeated outright. The several attempts made by him to bring about anti-Socialist legislation have been foiled. The great Reichstag election of 1898 went strongly against him, and this despite his vigorous interference, and brought an increase of strength to the Socialists. Both the Reichstag and the Diet refused, in the face of the Kaiser's urgings, to pass laws (the so-called "Lex Heinze" and "Lex Arons") which would virtually have throttled the remnant of public and pri-

vate freedom of speech and thought, though in this fight he had the Center with him and nearly the solid Conservative faction. The Diet, on two conspicuous occasions, and not-withstanding the fact that the Kaiser had publicly, repeatedly and in emphatic language pledged himself personally in favor of it, refused to sanction the construction of the Midland Canal.

These are important and far-reaching measures in which he was worsted, but he had a like experience on many minor occasions. A conspicuous instance was the struggle between the Kaiser and the Prince-Regent of Lippe, ruler of a small state comprising but 1,215 square kilometers, with a total population of 139,000. The regent of this petty principality had been, prior to his accession, a mere count of modest means and a major in the Prussian army. Yet in his earnest attempt to unseat this ruler of an unimportant fragment of the empire, the Kaiser was signally defeated; and as his object had been to supplant Prince Ernest by his (the Kaiser's) brother-in-law, Prince Adolph of Schaumburg-Lippe, and as the committee of arbitration deciding against him had been presided over by the Kaiser's friend, the late King Albert of Saxony, this defeat was the more galling.

However, despite occasional rebuffs, the Kaiser, in nine cases out of ten, has had his way, and is likely to have it in the future. His influence today is felt more strongly than that of any other single factor in Germany. In some ways this has been beneficial to Germany. It has led to the adoption of a most comprehensive plan of naval increase. It has infused more enterprise and self-confidence into the nation. It has inaugurated Germany's world policy. Despite the fact that the nation gave undue prominence to sentimental considerations during the Spanish and the Boer wars, and thereby embittered relations, first with this country, and next with England, it has steered the ship of state so cleverly as to lead to the present rapprochement with this nation, and to at least a maintenance of correct relations with England. Perhaps, however, the same results might have been obtained

by the Imperial Chancellors, if they had been left untrammelled to the exercise of their constitutional functions.

The Kaiser's influence upon education and upon science in Germany has been great and, in the main, wholesome. He has clearly perceived the urgent need of remodelling the German educational system on new lines—lines more in accord with the requirements of this age of practical things; and his ideas, though at first they met the united opposition of the professional pedagogues of the old school, are now slowly prevailing. In the wide domain of applied science the Kaiser's influence has also wrought a vast amount of good.

But the incalculable harm done by the Kaiser's influence in other fields of public life probably more than balances accounts. For one thing, it has lowered the national standard of political thought and liberty. To all intents and purposes Germany, though nominally enjoying a constitutional form of government, is ruled autocratically. This is a curious instance of political atavism, when the previous history of political development in Germany during the nineteenth century is considered.

On German literary and art life the personal influence of the Kaiser has also been noxious in the highest degree. He has waged, with more or less success, a savage war upon that highly interesting movement known variously as "Secessionist" or "Realistic" and of which, in literature, Hauptmann and Sudermann have been the main standard-bearers. and in art, Böcklin, Liebermann, Klinger, Thoma, Stuck, and others. With all his might he has fought this movement, the most promising Germany has known for a century, and despite its extreme and unwise partisans one powfully moulding German thought and ideals. In place of it the Kaiser has, so far as lay in his power, substituted tame mediocrity, as strikingly exemplified by his own marble "ancestral gallery" in the Siegesallee in Berlin, and by the bombastic historical drama of Joseph Lauff, the latter owing their very existence to the Kaiser's inspiration.



The Most Photographed Sovereign in Europe in One of His Uniforms.



The Kaiser in yet another Uniform.

But perhaps the most portentous injury, and certainly the most completely achieved, done to German public life by the Kaiser's personal influence, is that inflicted upon the press and periodical literature. Honest expression of opinion, whenever it contravened the Kaiser's ideas and convictions, has been so persistently and severely punished that it may be said to be effectually muzzled. There has never been any regime in Germany, so far as the records go, during which convictions for lese majeste and all sorts of press offenses have been even approximately as numerous. All this is not only in consonance with the Kaiser's wishes, but it is in large measure directly due to him, the appointment of the judges forming the highest tribunal in the empire, and the positions leading up to this highest court, being under his control. The Kaiser has never during the fourteen years of his reign pardoned a single one of these offenders against his own dignity, nor even shortened, in any instance, their penalty. Besides, he is on record with many sayings wherein he expressed nothing less than downright hostility to a free press.

In the Kaiser's veins mingle strange and unharmonious elements—the blood of the Hohenzollerns, than which there is none more matter-of-fact in Europe, nor more cool and well disciplined, and the blood of the Guelphs, than which there is none more stubborn, proud and unruly. William II. shows very distinctly this double lineage in his physical as well as his mental make-up. When one keeps this in mind, the discordant qualities of his personal influence, in its baneful as well as its beneficial effects, are more justly appreciated and adjusted.



The Siege and Relief of Leyden

The siege and relief of Leyden in 1573-1574 was one of the most dramatic episodes in the Dutch war of independence. The historian Motley, in his great work, "The Rise of the Dutch Republic," has told the story of this in some of the most thrilling pages of history ever written. The cutting of the dykes by means of which the relieving fleet sailed inland to the very walls of the city may be readily visualized by referring to the old map here reproduced.

According to the advice early given by the Prince of Orange, the citizens [of Leyden] had taken an account of their provisions of all kinds, including the livestock. By the end of June, the city was placed on a strict allowance of food, all the provisions being purchased by the authorities at an equitable price. Half a pound of meat and half a pound of bread was allotted to a full grown man, and to the rest, a due proportion. The city being strictly invested, no communication, save by carrier pigeons, and by a few swift and skilful messengers, called jumpers, was possible. Sorties and fierce combats were, however, of daily occurrence, and a handsome bounty was offered to any man who brought into the city gates the head of a Spaniard. The reward was paid many times, but the population was becoming so excited and so apt, that the authorities felt it dangerous to permit the continuance of these conflicts. Lest the city, little by little, should lose its few disciplined defenders, it was now proclaimed, by sound of church bell, that in future no man should leave the gates.

The Prince had his headquarters at Delft and at Rotterdam. Between those two cities, an important fortress, called Polderwaert, secured him in the control of the alluvial quadrangle, watered on two sides by the Yssel and the Meuse. On the 29th of June, the Spaniards, feeling its value, had made an unsuccessful effort to carry this fort by storm. They had been beaten off, with the loss

of several hundred men, the Prince remaining in possession of the position, from which alone he could hope to relieve Leyden, He still held in his hand the keys with which he could unlock the ocean gates and let the waters in upon the land, and he had long been convinced that nothing could save the city but to break the dykes. * * * He determined that these should be pierced, while, at the same time, the great sluices at Rotterdam, Schiedam, and Delftshaven should be opened. The damage to the fields, villages, and growing crops would be enormous, but he felt that no other course could rescue Leyden, and with it the whole of Holland from destruction. His clear expositions and impassioned eloquence at last overcame all resistance. By the middle of July the estates fully consented to his plan, and its execution was immediately undertaken. "Better a drowned land than a lost land," cried the patriots, with enthusiasm, as they devoted their fertile fields to desolation.

THE "SEA-BEGGARS."

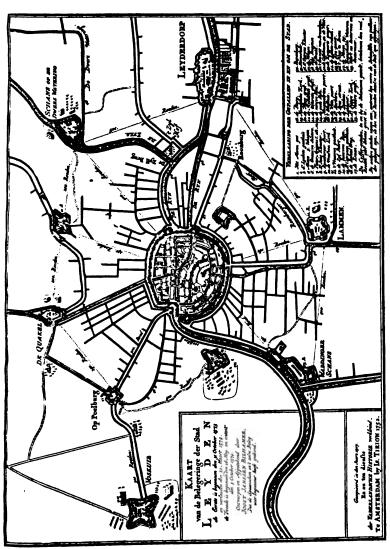
On the 1st of September, Admiral Boisot arrived out of Zealand with a small number of vessels, and with eight hundred veteran sailors. A wild and ferocious crew were those eight hundred Zealanders. Scarred, hacked, and even maimed, in the unceasing conflicts in which their lives had passed; wearing crescents in their caps, with the inscription, "Rather Turkish than Popish;" renowned far and wide, as much for their ferocity as for their nautical skill; the appearance of these wildest of the "Sea-beggars" was both eccentric and terrific. They were known never to give nor to take quarter, for they went to mortal combat only, and had sworn to spare neither noble nor simple, neither king, kaiser, nor pope, should they fall into their power.

More than two hundred vessels had been now assembled, carrying generally ten pieces of cannon, with from ten to eighteen oars, and manned with twenty-five hundred veterans, experienced both on land and water. The work was now undertaken in earnest. The distance from Leyden to the outer dyke, over whose ruins the ocean had already been admitted, was nearly fifteen miles. This reclaimed territory, however, was not maintained against the sea by these external barriers alone. The flotilla made its way with ease to the Land-scheiding, a strong dyke within five miles of Levden, but here its progress was arrested. The approach to the city was surrounded by many strong ramparts, one within the other. by which it was defended against its ancient enemy, the ocean, precisely like the circumvallations by means of which it was now assailed by its more recent enemy, the Spaniard. To enable the fleet, however, to sail over the land, it was necessary to break through this two-fold series of defences. Between the Land-scheiding and Leyden were several dykes, which kept out the water; upon the level territory, thus encircled, were many villages, together with a chain of sixty-two forts, which completely occupied the land. All these villages and fortresses were held by the veteran troops of the King; the besieging force being about four times as strong as that which was coming to the rescue.

The Prince had given orders that the Land-scheiding, which was still one-and-a-half feet above water, should be taken possession of, at every hazard. On the night of the 10th and 11th of September this was accomplished, by surprise, and in a masterly manner. The few Spaniards who had been stationed upon the dyke were all despatched or driven off and the patriots fortified themselves upon it, without the loss of a man. As the day dawned, the Spaniards saw the fatal error which they had committed in leaving this bulwark so feebly defended, and from two villages which stood close to the dyke, the troops now rushed in considerable force to recover what they had lost. A hot action succeeded, but the patriots had too securely established themselves. They completely defeated the enemy, who retired, leaving hundreds of dead on the field, and the patriots in complete possession of the Land-scheiding.

HOW THE DYKES WERE TAKEN.

The great dyke having been thus occupied, no time was lost in breaking it through in several places, a work which was accomplished under the very eyes of the enemy. The fleet sailed through the gaps; but, after their passage had been effected in good order. the Admiral found, to his surprise, that it was not the only rampart to be carried. The Prince had been informed, by those who claimed to know the country, that, when once the Land-scheiding had been passed, the water would flood the country as far as Levden, but the "Green-way," another long dyke, three-quarters of a mile farther inward, now rose at least a foot above the water. to oppose their further progress. Fortunately, by a second and still more culpable carelessness, this dyke had been left by the Spaniards in as unprotected a state as the first had been. and audaciously Admiral Boisot took possession of this barrier also, levelled it in many places, and brought his flotilla in triumph, over its ruins. Again, however, he was doomed to disappointment. A large mere, called the Freshwater Lake, was known to extend itself directly in his path about midway between the Land-scheiding and the city. To this piece of water, into which he expected to have instantly floated, his only passage lay through one deep canal. The sea which had thus far borne him on, now diffusing itself over a very wide surface, and under the influence of an adverse wind, had become too shallow for his ships. The canal alone was deep



Eighteenth Century Map of Leyden Showing Topography of Country at Time of Siege.

enough, but it led directly towards a bridge, strongly occupied by the enemy. Hostile troops, moreover, to the amount of three thousand occupied both sides of the canal. The bold Boisot, nevertheless, determined to force his passage, if possible. Selecting a few of his strongest vessels, his heaviest artillery, and his bravest sailors, he led the van himself, in a desperate attempt to make his way to the mere. He opened a hot fire upon the bridge, then converted into a fortress, while his men engaged in hand-to-hand combat with a succession of skirmishers from the troops along the canal. After losing a few men, and ascertaining the impregnable position of the enemy, he was obliged to withdraw, defeated, and almost despairing.

A week had elapsed since the great dyke had been pierced, and the flotilla now lay motionless in shallow water, having accomplished less than two miles. The wind, too, was easterly, causing the sea rather to sink than to rise. Everything wore a gloomy aspect, when, fortunately, on the 18th, the wind shifted to the northwest, and for three days blew a gale. The waters rose rapidly, and before the second day was closed the armada was afloat again. Some fugitives from Zoetermeer village now arrived and informed the Admiral that, by making a detour to the right, the could completely circumvent the bridge and the mere. They guided him, accordingly, to a comparatively low dyke, which led between the villages of Zoetermeer and Benthuyzen. A strong force of Spaniards was stationed in each place, but, seized with panic, instead of sallying to defend the barrier, they fled inwardly toward Leyden, and halted at the village of North Aa.

THE SITUATION AT LEYDEN.

Meantime, the besieged city was at its last gasp. The burghers had been in a state of uncertainty for many days; being aware that the fleet had set forth for their relief, but knowing full well the thousand obstacles which it had to surmount. They had guessed its progress by the illumination from the blazing villages; they had heard its salvos of artillery, on its arrival at North Aa; but since then, all had been dark and mournful again, hope and fear, in sickening alteration, distracting every breast. They knew that the wind was unfavorable, and at the dawn of each day every eye was turned . wistfully to the vanes of the steeples. So long as the easterly breeze prevailed, they felt, as they anxiously stood on towers and housetops, that they must look in vain for the welcome ocean. Yet, while thus patiently waiting, they were literally starving; for even the misery endured at Harlem had not reached that depth and intensity of agony to which Leyden was now reduced. Bread, maltcake, horse-flesh, had entirely disappeared; dogs, cats, rats, and other vermin, were esteemed luxuries. A small number of cows,

kept as long as possible, for their milk, still remained; but a few were killed from day to day, and distributed in minute proportions, hardly sufficient to support life among the famishing population. * * * The pestilence stalked at noonday through the city, and the doomed inhabitants fell like grass beneath its scythe. From six thousand to eight thousand human beings sank before this scourge alone, yet the people resolutely held out—women and men mutually encouraging each other to resist the entrance of their foreign foe—an evil more horrible than pest or famine.

The missives from Valdez, who saw more vividly than the besieged could do, the uncertainty of his own position, now poured daily into the city, the enemy becoming more prodigal of his vows. as he felt that the ocean might yet save the victims from his grasp. The inhabitants, in their ignorance, had gradually abandoned their hopes of relief, but they spurned the summons to surrender. Leyden was sublime in its despair. A few murmurs were, however, occasionally heard at the steadfastness of the magistrates, and a dead body was placed at the door of the burgomaster, as a silent witness against his inflexibility. A party of the more faint-hearted even assailed the heroic Adrian Van der Werf with threats and reproaches as he passed through the streets. A crowd had gathered around him, as he reached a triangular place in the center of the town, into which many of the principal streets emptied themselves, and upon one side of which stood the church of Saint Pancras. with its high brick tower surmounted by two pointed turrets, and with two ancient lime trees at its entrance. There stood the burgomaster, a tall, haggard, imposing figure, with dark visage, and a tranquil but commanding eye. He waved his broad-leaved felt hat for silence, and then exclaimed, in language which has been almost literally preserved:

"What would ye, my friends? Why do ye murmur that we do not break our vows and surrender the city to the Spaniards? a fate more horrible than the agony which she now endures. I tell you I have made an oath to hold the city, and may God give me strength to keep my oath! I can die but once; whether by your hands, the enemy's, or by the hand of God. My own fate is indifferent to me, not so that of the city intrusted to my care. I know that we shall starve if not soon relieved; but starvation is preferable to the dishonored death which is the only alternative. Your menaces move me not; my life is at your disposal; here is my sword, plunge it into my breast, and divide my flesh among you. Take my body to appease your hunger, but expect no surrender, so long as I remain alive."

The words of the stout burgomaster inspired a new courage in the hearts of those who heard him, and a shout of applause and defiance arose from the famishing but enthusiastic crowd. They left the place, after exchanging new vows of fidelity with their magistrate, and again ascended tower and battlement to watch for the coming fleet.

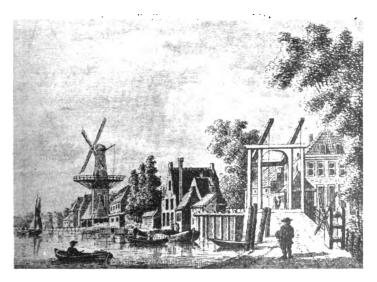
THE SEA ASSISTS THE HOLLANDERS.

A violent equinoctial gale, on the night of the 1st and 2nd of October, came storming from the northwest, shifting after a few hours full eight points, and then blowing still more violently from the southwest. The waters of the North Sea were piled in vast masses upon the southern coast of Holland, and then dashed furiously landward, the ocean rising over the earth, and sweeping with unrestrained power across the ruined dykes.

In the course of twenty-four hours, the fleet at North Aa, instead of nine inches, had more than two feet of water. No time was lost. The Kirk-way, which has been broken through according to the Prince's instructions, was now completely overflowed, and the fleet sailed at midnight, in the midst of the storm and darkness. A few sentinel vessels of the enemy challenged them as they steadily rowed towards Zoeterwoude. The answer was a flash from Boisot's cannon, lighting up the black waste of waters. There was a fierce midnight naval battle; a strange spectacle among the branches of those quiet orchards, and with the chimney stacks of half-submerged farm houses rising around the contending vessels. The neighboring village of Zoeterwoude shook with the discharges of the Zealanders' cannon, and the Spaniards assembled in that fortress knew that the rebel Admiral was at last affoat and on his course. The enemy's vessels were soon sunk, their crews hurled into the waves. On went the fleet, sweeping over the broad waters which lay between Zoeterwoude and Zwieten. As they approached some shallows, which led into the great mere, the Zealanders dashed into the sea, and with sheer strength shouldered every vessel through. Two obstacles lay still in their path—the forts of Zoeterwoude and Lammen, distant from the city five hundred and two hundred and fifty yards respectively. Strong redoubts, both well supplied with troops and artillery, they were likely to give a rough reception to the light flotilla, but the panic which had hitherto driven their foes before the advancing patriots, had reached Zoeterwoude. Hardly was the fleet in sight when the Spaniards, in the early morning, poured out from the fortress, and fled precipitately to the left, along a road which led in a westerly direction towards the Hague. Their narrow path was rapidly vanishing in the waves, and hundreds sank beneath the constantly deepening and treacherous flood. The wild Zealanders, too, sprang from their vessels upon the crumbling dyke and drove their retreating foes into the sea. They hurled their harpoons at them, with an accuracy acquired in many a polar chase; they plunged into the waves in the keen pursuit. attacking



The Old Rhine, Leyden, from the Spaniards' Bridge.



Spaniards' Bridge, Leyden. From an old Engraving.

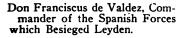


Peter A. van der Werf, the heroic Burgomaster of Leyden during the Siege.

them with boat-hook and dagger. The numbers who thus fell beneath these corsairs, who neither gave nor took quarter, were never counted, but probably not less than a thousand perished. The rest effected their escape to the Hague.

The first fortress was thus seized, dismantled, set on fire, and passed, and a few strokes of the oars brought the whole fleet close to Lammen. This last obstacle rose formidable and frowning directly across their path. Swarming as it was with soldiers, and bristling with artillery, it seemed to defy the armada either to carry it by storm or to pass under its guns into the city. It appeared that the enterprise was, after all, to founder within sight of the long expecting and expected haven. Boisot anchored his fleet within a respectful distance, and spent what remained of the day in carefully reconnoitering the fort, which seemed only too strong. In conjunction with Leyderdorp, the headquarters of Valdez, a mile and a half distant on the right, and within a mile of the city, it seemed so insuperable an impediment that Boisot wrote in despondent tone to the Prince of Orange. He announced his intention of carrying the fort, if it were possible, on the following morning, but if obliged to retreat, he observed, with something like despair, there would be nothing for it but to wait for another gale of wind. If the waters should rise sufficiently to enable them to make a wide detour, it might be possible, if, in the meantime, Ley-







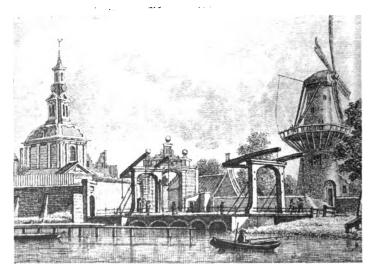
Jean van der Does of Noordwyk, in Command of Leyden during the Siege.

den did not starve or surrender, to enter its gates from the opposite side.

Meantime, the citizens had grown wild with expectation. A dove had been dispatched by Boisot, informing them of his precise position, and a number of citizens accompanied the burgomaster, at nightfall, toward the tower of Hengist-"Yonder," cried the magistrate, stretching out his hand toward Lammen, "yonder behind that fort are bread and meat, and brethren in thousands. Shall all this be destroyed by the Spanish guns, or shall we rush to the rescue of our friends?" "We will tear the fortress to pieces with our teeth and nails," was the reply, "before the relief, so long expected, shall be wrested from us." It was resolved that a sortie, in conjunction with the operations of Boisot, should be made against Lammen with the earliest dawn. Night descended upon the scene, a pitch dark night, full of anxiety to the Spaniards, to the armada, to Leyden. Strange sights and sounds occurred at different moments to bewilder the anxious sentinels. A long procession of lights issuing from the fort was seen to flit across the black face of the waters, in the dead of night, and the whole of the city wall, between the Cow-gate and the Tower of Burgundy, fell with a loud crash. The horror-struck citizens thought that the Spaniards were upon them at last; the Spaniards imagined the noise to indicate a



The Sea Gate, Leyden. From an old Engraving.



The Witte Gate, Leyden. From an old Engraving.

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desperate sortie of the citizens. Everything was vague and mysterious.

Day dawned at length, after a feverish night, and the Admiral prepared for the assault. Within the fortress reigned a death-like stillness which inspired a sickening suspicion. Had the city, indeed, been carried in the night; had the massacre already commenced; had all this labor and audacity been expended in vain? Suddenly a man was descried wading breast-high through the water from Lammen towards the fleet, while at the same time, one solitary boy was seen to wave his cap from the summit of the fort. After a moment of doubt, the happy mystery was solved. The Spaniards had fled, panic-stricken, during the darkness. Their position would still have enabled them, with firmness, to frustrate the enterprise of the patriots, but the hand of God, which had sent the ocean and the tempest to the deliverance of Leyden, had struck her enemies with terror likewise. The lights which had been seen moving during the night were the lanterns of the retreating Spaniards, and the boy who was now waving his triumphant signal from the battlements had alone witnessed the spectacle. So confident was he in the conclusion to which it led him that he had volunteered at daybreak to go hither and alone. The magistrates, fearing a trap, hesitated for a moment to believe the truth, which soon, however, became quite evident. Valdez, flying himself from Leyderdorp, had ordered Colonel Borgia to retire with all his troops from Lammen. Thus, the Spaniards had retreated at the very moment that an extraordinary accident had laid bare a whole side of the city for their entrance. The noise of the wall, as it fell, only inspired them with fresh alarm; for they believed that the citizens had sallied forth in the darkness. to aid the advancing flood in the work of destruction. All obstacles being now removed, the fleet swept by Lammen and entered the city on the morning of the 3rd of October. Levden was relieved.

THE FLEET REACHES THE CITY.

The quays were lined with the famishing population, as the fleet rowed through the canals, every human being who could stand coming forth to greet the preservers of the city. Bread was thrown from every vessel among the crowd. The poor creatures, who, for two months had tasted no wholesome human food, and who had literally been living within the jaws of death, snatched eagerly the blessed gift, at last too liberally bestowed. Many choked themselves to death, in the greediness with which they devoured their bread; others became ill with the effects of plenty thus suddenly succeeding starvation;—but these were isolated cases, a repetition of which was prevented. The Admiral, stepping ashore, was welcomed by the magistracy, and a solemn procession was immediately formed. Magistrates and citizens, wild Zealanders, emaciated burgher guards,

sailors, soldiers, women, children,—nearly every living person within the walls, all repaired without delay to the great church, stout Admiral Boisot leading the way. The starving and heroic city, which had been so firm in its resistance to an earthly king, now bent itself in humble gratitude before the King of kings. After prayers, the whole vast congregation joined in the thanksgiving hymn. Thousands of voices raised the song, but few were able to carry it to its conclusion, for the universal emotion, deepened by the music, became too full for utterance. The hymn was abruptly suspended, while the multitude wept like children. The scene of honest pathos terminated, the necessary measures for distributing the food and relieving the sick were taken by the magistracy.

The Vesper Hour*

(Baccalaureate Sermon Delivered to the C. L. S. C. Class of 1908, Chautauqua, N. Y., August 16, 1908.)

By Chancellor John H. Vincent

OD has revealed himself to humanity in nature, in biography, in history, in that unique personality, Jesus Christ, in the preparatory civilizations that paved the way for him, and finally, as a key to all the rest in that great body of literature,—historic, poetic, prophetic,—clearly, spiritually, subjectively—the holy Bible.

God also now reveals himself in the personal life through the direct and unconscious influence of the believer, in the acts of the saints creating as they do the garb of personal character,—"fine linen, bright and pure, the righteous acts of the saints." Here is high art, the genius of goodness filling the face with radiance and the conduct with righteous acts. This is the true salvation which is working itself out in every day goodness, in the "beauty of holiness."

In this life of personal loveliness the main point is not the assurance of personal safety nor is it in "being happy."

^{*}The Vesper Hour, contributed to The Chautauquan each month by Chancellor Vincent, continues the ministries of Chautauqua's Vesper Service throughout the year.



It is in an energy of life that is wholly self-forgetting. There is the life of the whirlpool which draws everything unto itself,—there is the life of the fountain which gives everything that it has as a blessing to others. It is a life of service full of the "acts" of sympathy illustrated by Him who "went about doing good."

This is the secret of a true life; human affection working itself out in deeds of service—acts that flow from a warm heart and that tell in permanent influence and power. When in the physical world we are under clouds and darkness, no sun in sight, we nevertheless feel warm and comfortable because the sun really is, although unseen, and in his place beyond the clouds is radiant and potent, holding us to our solar center and giving us light and heat. So under all systems of belief genuine souls are held by Christ even though they may never have heard his name pronounced. We may not yet be sound in theology but if we be sound in motive, genuine in spirit, and diligent in endeavor in due time we shall be established in a true theology. We may not at first understand the solar system but even then we may enjoy and be blessed by the sunlight.

But it is important that we should think of Christ and not of self. Therefore we say: Don't make or think too much of yourself; think of God and forget yourself. Never mind your moods of feeling. Let your aspirations and your motives alone as much as possible. The less you think about them as an end the more you will have of the joy and strength of life and the better you will serve men. Aim to be, for character is at the root of everything; but aim to be not for the sake of being but for the sake of doing-of serving. Be that you may bless. Remember that the shortest route to insanity and abnormality is too great solicitude about self, and about self in the future. The highest mission of the church is not safety for the future but healthsoundness, sanity in the present, out of which spring the "righteous acts of the saints." The normal Christian life is, of course, personal, but it is so for the sake of service. A man

clothes himself with apparatus for diving but he does not thus array himself for the sake of good looks nor for personal comfort. It is that he may rescue others from danger or by his researches in the deep sea contribute to science and the safety of society. The church exists not to weave white robes for saints or twine crowns into form but to help—to make good citizens, useful neighbors, secure the enactment of wholesome laws, good government, a higher civilization that individuals may live not for themselves but for society—not for the new Jerusalem yonder in some remote star but the new Jerusalem coming down from heaven to establish itself on earth.

The love of the beautiful is a divinely inspired passion but it is the beautiful in every-day life whether in kitchen or cathedral. I do covet high art in church life—not through ecclesiastical art based on medieval theories of church, conformities to out-worn and petrified liturgies, but the art of the present day with today's sunshine, with the freshness of the wind of today out of the north, the church building a place of cleanliness, neatness, beauty, simplicity, with suggestions of today's civilization and with adaptation to today's demands. I covet for the church today the noble art of worship in which are silence, thoughtfulness, reverence, a thirst for truth and self-sacrificing devotion to all forms of philanthropy. My ideal church service embraces the dignity and propriety of the Episcopalian, the ardor of the Methodist, and the charming self-control and silence of the Quaker.

It is not culture but character that counts. It is not graceful manners but the grace-full spirit. It is not familiarity with wide ranges of literature but fellowship with the Spirit of all wisdom. It is not merely tact and good taste in social fellowship but unselfish love, and patience that has a smile to add to its submission and endurance. What is most beautiful is designed to be most useful. The graces of personal character are means of grace to others. There is a beauty of holiness. There are artists in the realm of grace—dealing not with brush and pigments, not with the

tools of architects and builders nor with the chisel and polish of the sculptor—but adding day after day faith, virtue, knowledge, temperance, patience, godliness, brotherly kindness, charity. There is a fine embroidery of contentment and self-forgetfulness and genuine love for folks. Happy is the home and noble is the social circle where such dress and drapery are found. Very soon in such homes voices that before were harsh become soft and sweet. Love never talks of things that make for confusion and discord. And its kitchen-tones are always full of music. To be a genuine lady in the kitchen is the very perfection of Christian art. It reminds one of Bethany and Mary and Martha and the Master. The woman who by her servants is both respected and beloved is entitled to a lofty place in truly Christian society.

As every drop of water is created and controlled by the mysterious force we call gravitation, as the atmosphere penetrates and permeates it as delicately and perfectly as though it were the only form of matter for the benefit of which the atmosphere existed, as the sun applying the most delicate ray of its light to that tiny globule of water fills it with beauty and glory as though the sun existed for the sole purpose of making that little thing a beauty and a glory in the eyes of men so we are justified in accepting the words of Holy Writ concerning the significance and value of a single human life. The sparrow that falls does not fall beyond or without the Heavenly Father's knowledge and care. He counts the hairs of the head. He makes all the tiny things that men need the microscope to discover. Him nothing is so insignificant as to be cast carelessly aside. He cares for the minute, the unimportant, the microscopic, even "the balancings of the clouds are the wondrous workings of Him who is perfect in knowledge." The man is to be congratulated who carries this faith into his own everyday life. God is our Father. He knoweth our frame, our temperament, our weak points, our antecedents, our limitations, the strain of bad blood in us, the play of circumstances before we know enough to avoid or resist. He knows the circumstances of long ago out of which the conditions of today have come. And He gives us a word of Holy Writ—a whole chapter of words as these,—"Casting all your care on God for He careth for you;" "Happy is he that hath the God of Jacob for his help, whose hope is in the Lord his God." It is a great thing, a wonderful thing—this fact of an ever-active, ever-loving brother-like Father of our spirits who knows us all—each one of us, the weakest, the most simple, the most reckless and foolish and obdurate of us all, and who loves and longs to have us come back to Him with penitence for the past and a brave purpose for the future.

In the ideal life nothing is so slight or trifling that we can refuse to give it attention. The insignificant, if it be by God's appointment, is stupendous. The tiny dewdrop really represents the mighty force of gravitation and reflects the glory of the sun. Do not despise the one tiny drop of dew. God does not. His great servants, gravitation and the sun, respect, conserve, and glorify a drop of dew. When it disappears it is not destroyed. It is somewhere again sometime to tremble and glow and bless. You dare not despise anything. You dare not neglect anything. Recognize the immensity and the relation of the Master to these immensities and whoever, whatever you are, remember you are face to face with the fact and force of Omnipotent energy, the energy of love. The slightest action sustains widest relationships. The immensities are made up of the infinitesimals. And every little thing has its place and mission. The thorn in the flesh—the annoyance, hindrances, vexations of life by which what we call "good" seems to be reduced, and what we account "enjoyment" is diminished—all have a beneficent mission. Earth may crowd you with care but Heaven will crown you with grace and glory. How many of the factors that make for personality we have had no share in creating or introducing into our lives. Pre-natal influences, parental qualities imparted to us from a long line of ancestors; carelessness of ignorant or silly women during those delicate and important months of the new life that "throbs beneath the mother's heart;" a false and often a fatal idea of delicacy and propriety; the power of example; the vast power of "unconscious influence" during the early years of life; the earliest educative processes of nursery and fireside; the first intimate associates; the pictures on the wall, the tones of voice in habitual intercourse; the sharpness of uncontrolled temper; the effects of a variable policy in government of the poor child, never able to determine which it is safest to do. How important that at home we should find always "the righteous acts of the saints" arraying personalities and draping walls with "fine linen bright and pure."

There is a great deal of beauty that is, as the old phrase puts it "only skin deep." It is selfishness in silken robes. It is leprosy powdered, or painted in the colors of health. Decorative art may make very cheap paper look like satin. And there are tricks of politeness and courtesy among very unreal people deceiving the very elect—although not for long. Alas for the home they weaken and corrupt!

I covet for the church noble art in her services with a recognition not so much of yesterday's ideals and customs as of tomorrow's need and today's opportunity—a service full of reverence, beauty, and simplicity in harmony with the thought of the age we live in. I covet for the church the high ideals of art in personal character, as needed by our modern times. In all this ideal life of the church the divine leading does not involve freedom from exposure to pain and Even when God's hand holds ours it does not render impossible the "thorn in the flesh," the "decay" of "the outward man" and being "weighed down exceedingly beyond our power" as Paul says he was. Physicians must visit professionally the homes of godly men and women. And all the undertakers' bills are not sent exclusively to the homes of sinners. Learn the high art of submission to and serenity under the Divine discipline. Take what He sends with a smile and you will see through the veil that for once hides his face—a smile in response;—the smile of a mother who knows that the requirement so hard just now to bear means for tomorrow perfect acquiescence, and the next day rapture. Do not form but avoid the habit of criticism. Think of folks with good will. Take for granted that other people are as honest and as full of good will as you yourself are. Do not be a hornet. Be a busy bee but don't sting. Scatter words of charity and smiles of good will everywhere and every day. A soft answer may hush into silence every wild wave of wrath and this will be your way of following Christ whose "Peace be still" on the tumultuous Galilee is today one of the sweetest memories of his life.

Dear members of the Class of 1908, learn to think of God as the great artist who is ingenious and persistent in his endeavors to adorn you, each and all with "the beauty of holiness," "the meek and quiet spirit," "the righteous acts of saints," that "fine linen bright and pure." "He careth for you" at least as much as the sun that glorifies a dewdrop and then takes it up into the infinite to be forever a part of this great universe. Are you under the limitations of God's loving providence? Do you sometimes regret that you are not physically beautiful? Does your awkwardness by your sad self-consciousness now and then make you even more awkward? Are you over-sensitive through the very delicacy of your nervous organization? Was reputation your idol and has God allowed it to be shattered or at least shadowed? And is there a basis, even a slight basis of fact as a foundation for an ungenerous rumor? Are you ambitious for yourself or your best beloved and are there barriers in the way of its gratification? Has an insidious disease in vourself or in one you love better than you love self given throb or ache or started a fear you cannot quiet? Does some other "thorn in the flesh," or hint of disaster in the home or business life give you anxiety? Let me remind you that God careth for you. He cares for a sparrow. He puts his wisdom and power and glory into a dewdrop. No atom of matter that He made shall ever be lost. His providence never ceases. His love never faileth. His purposes are lofty and royal. He would array you in "fine linen bright and pure." He would fill your life with righteous deeds and make some soul sing a psalm of praise in heaven because of the divine grace He put into your soul.

Come to Him. Open your soul to Him and say, "Oh God possess me!" Rest in Him. Wait for Him. Serve Him. And do all this—Now!

Famous European Short Stories The Three Hermits*

By Leo Tolstoy.

"And in praying use not vain repetitions as the Gentiles do: for they think that they shall be heard for their much speaking. Be not therefore like unto them: for your Father knoweth what things ye have need of, before ye ask Him."—Matt. vi, 7, 8.

Monastery; and on the same vessel were a number of pilgrims on their way to visit the shrines at that place. The voyage was a smooth one. The wind favorable, and the weather fair. The pilgrims lay on deck, eating, or sat in groups talking to one another. The Bishop, too, came on deck, and as he was pacing up and down, he noticed a group of men standing near the prow and listening to a fisherman, who was pointing to the sea and telling them something. The Bishop stopped, and looked in the direction in which the man was pointing. He could see nothing, however, but the sea glistening in the sunshine. He drew nearer to listen, but when the man saw him, he took off his cap and was silent. The rest of the people also took off their caps, and bowed.

"Do not let me disturb you, friends," said the Bishop.

^{*}An old legend current in the Volga district. From "Folk-Tales Retold." Written by Tolstoy in 1886.

"I came to hear what this good man was saying."

"The fisherman was telling us about the hermits," replied one, a tradesman, rather bolder than the rest.

"What hermits?" asked the Bishop, going to the side of the vessel and seating himself on a box. "Tell me about

them. I should like to hear. What were you pointing at?"

"Why, that little island you can just see over there," answered the man, pointing to a spot ahead and a little to the right. "That is the island where the hermits live for the salvation of their souls."

"Where is the island?" asked the Bishop. "I see nothing."

"There in the distance, if you will please look along my hand. Do you see that little cloud? Below it, and a bit to the left, there is just a faint streak. That is the island."

The Bishop looked carefully, but his unaccustomed eyes could make out nothing but the water shimmering in the sun.

"I cannot see it," he said. "But who are the hermits that live there?"

"They are holy men," answered the fisherman. "I had long heard tell of them, but never chanced to see them myself till the year before last."

And the fisherman related how once, when he was out fishing, he had been stranded at night upon that island, not knowing where he was. In the morning, as he wandered about the island, he came across an earth hut, and met an old man standing near it. Presently two others came out, and after having fed him, and dried his things, they helped him mend his boat.

"And what are they like?" asked the Bishop.

"One is a small man and his back is bent. He wears a priest's cassock and is very old; he must be more than a hundred, I should say. He is so old that the white of his beard is taking a greenish tinge, but he is always smiling, and his face is as bright as an angel's from heaven. The second is taller, but he also is very old. He wears a tattered,

peasant coat. His beard is broad, and of a yellowish grey color. He is a strong man. Before I had time to help him, he turned my boat over as if it were only a pail. He too, is kindly and cheerful. The third is tall, and has a beard as white as snow and reaching to his knees. He is stern with over-hanging eyebrows; and he wears nothing but a mat tied round his waist."

"And did they speak to you?" asked the Bishop.

"For the most part they did everything in silence, and spoke but little even to one another. One of them would just give a glance, and the others would understand him. I asked the tallest whether they had lived there long. He frowned, and muttered something as if he was angry; but the oldest one took his hand and smiled, and then the tall one was quiet. The oldest one only said: 'Have mercy upon us,' and smiled."

While the fisherman was talking, the ship had drawn nearer to the island.

"There, now you can see it plainly, if your Grace will please to look," said the tradesman, pointing with his hand.

The Bishop looked, and now he really saw a dark streak—which was the island. Having looked at it a while, he left the prow of the vessel, and going to the stern, asked the helmsman:

"What island is that?"

"That one," replied the man, "has no name. There are many such in this sea."

"Is it true that there are hermits who live there for the salvation of their souls?"

"So it is said, your Grace, but I don't know if it's true. Fishermen say they have seen them; but of course they may only be spinning yarns."

"I should like to land on the island and see these men," said the Bishop. "How could I manage it?"

"The ship cannot get close to the island," replied the helmsman, "but you might be rowed there in a boat. You had better speak to the captain."

The captain was sent for and came.

"I should like to see these hermits," said the Bishop. "Could I not be rowed ashore?"

The captain tried to dissuade him.

"Of course it could be done," said he, "but we should lose much time. And if I might venture to say so to your Grace, the old men are not worth your pains. I have heard say that they are foolish old fellows, who understand nothing, and never speak a word, any more than the fish in the sea."

"I wish to see them," said the Bishop, "and I will pay you for your trouble and loss of time. Please let me have a boat."

There was no help for it; so the order was given. The sailors trimmed the sails, the steersman put up the helm, and the ship's course was set for the island. A chair was placed at the prow for the Bishop, and he sat there, looking ahead. The passengers all collected at the prow, and gazed at the island. Those who had the sharpest eyes could presently make out the rocks on it, and then a mud hut was seen. At last one man saw the hermits themselves. The captain brought a telescope and, after looking through it, handed it to the Bishop.

"It's right enough. There are three men standing on the shore. There, a little to the right of that big rock."

The Bishop took the telescope, got it into position, and he saw the three men: a tall one, a shorter one, and one very small and bent, standing on the shore and holding each other by the hand.

The captain turned to the Bishop.

"The vessel can get no nearer in than this, your Grace. If you wish to go ashore, we must ask you to go in the boat, while we anchor here."

The cable was quickly let out, the anchor cast, and the sails furled. There was a jerk, and the vessel shook. Then a boat having been lowered, the oarsmen jumped in, and the Bishop descended the ladder and took his seat. The

men pulled at their oars, and the boat moved rapidly towards the island. When they came within a stone's throw, they saw three old men: a tall one with only a mat tied round his waist; a shorter one in a tattered peasant coat, and a very old one bent with age and wearing an old cassock—all three standing hand in hand.

The oarsmen pulled in to the shore, and held on with the boathook while the Bishop got out.

The old men bowed to him, and he gave them his benediction, at which they bowed still lower. Then the Bishop began to speak to them.

"I have heard," he said, "that you, godly men, live here saving your own souls, and praying to our Lord Christ for your fellow men. I, an unworthy servant of Christ, am called, by God's mercy, to keep and teach His flock. I wished to see you, servants of God, and to do what I can to teach you, also."

The old men looked at each other smiling, but remained silent.

"Tell me," said the Bishop, "what you are doing to save your souls, and how you serve God on this island."

The second hermit sighed, and looked at the oldest, the very ancient one. The latter smiled and said:

"We do not know how to serve God. We only serve and support ourselves, servant of God."

"But how do you pray to God?" asked the Bishop.

"We pray in this way," replied the hermit. "Three are ye, three are we, have mercy upon us."

And when the old man said this, all three raised their eyes to heaven, and repeated:

"Three are ye, three are we, have mercy upon us!" The Bishop smiled.

"You have evidently heard something about the Holy Trinity," said he. "But you do not pray aright. You have won my affection, godly men. I see you wish to please the Lord, but you do not know how to serve Him. That is not the way to pray; but listen to me, and I will teach you.

Famous European Short Stories

I will teach you, not a way of my own, but the way in which God in the Holy Scriptures has commanded all men to pray to Him."

And the Bishop began explaining to the hermits how God had revealed Himself to men; telling them of God the Father, and God the Son, and God the Holy Ghost.

"God the Son came down on earth," said he, "to save men, and this is how He taught us all to pray. Listen, and repeat after me: 'Our Father.'"

And the first old man repeated after him, "Our Father," and the second said, "Our Father," and the third said, "Our Father."

"Which art in Heaven," continued the Bishop.

The first hermit repeated, "Which art in heaven," but the second blundered over the words, and the tall hermit could not say them properly. His hair had grown over his mouth so that he could not speak plainly. The very old hermit, having no teeth, also mumbled indistinctly.

The Bishop repeated the words again, and the old men repeated them after him. The Bishop sat down on a stone, and the old men stood before him, watching his mouth, and repeating the words as he uttered them. And all day long the Bishop labored, saying a word twenty, thirty, a hundred times over, and the old men repeated it after him. They blundered, and he corrected them, and made them begin again.

The Bishop did not leave off till he had taught them the whole of the Lord's prayer so that they could not only repeat it after him, but could say it by themselves. The middle one was the first to know it, and to repeat the whole of it alone. The Bishop made him say it again and again, and at last the others could say it too.

It was getting dark, and the moon was appearing over the water, before the Bishop rose to return to the vessel. When he took leave of the old men, they all bowed down to the ground before him. He raised them, and kissed each of them, telling them to pray as he had taught them.

Then he got into the boat and returned to the ship. And as he sat in the boat and was rowed to the ship he could hear the three voices of the hermits loudly repeating the Lord's prayer. As the boat drew near the vessel their voices could no longer be heard, but they could still be seen in the moonlight, standing as he had left them on the shore, the shortest in the middle, the tallest on the right, the middle one on the left. As soon as the Bishop had reached the vessel and got on board, the anchor was weighed and the sails unfurled. The wind filled them, and the ship sailed away, and the Bishop took a seat in the stern and watched the island they had left. For a time he could still see the hermits, but presently they disappeared from sight, though the island was still visible. At last it too vanished, and only the sea was to be seen, rippling in the moonlight.

The pilgrims lay down to sleep, and all was quiet on deck. The Bishop did not wish to sleep, but sat alone at the stern, gazing at the sea where the island was no longer visible, and thinking of the good old men. He thought how pleased they had been to learn the Lord's prayer; and he thanked God for having sent him to teach and help such godly men.

So the Bishop sat, thinking, and gazing at the sea where the island had disappeared. And the moonlight flickered before his eyes, sparkling, now here, now there, upon the waves. Suddenly he saw something white shining on the bright path which the moon cast across the sea. Was it a seagull, or the little gleaming sail of some small boat? The Bishop fixed his eyes on it, wondering.

"It must be a boat sailing after us," thought he, "but it is overtaking us very rapidly. It was far, far away a minute ago, but now it is much nearer. It cannot be a boat, for I can see no sail; but whatever it may be, it is following us, and catching us up."

And he could not make out what it was. Not a boat, nor a bird, nor a fish! It was too large for a man, and

besides a man could not be out there in the midst of the sea. The Bishop rose, and said to the helmsman:

"Look there, what is that, my friend? What is it?" the Bishop repeated, though he could now see plainly what it was—the three hermits running upon the water, all gleaming white, their grey beards shining, and approaching the ship as quickly as though it were not moving.

The steersman looked, and let go the helm in terror.

"Oh Lord! The hermits are running after us on the water as though it were dry land!"

The passengers hearing him, jumped up, and crowded to the stern. They saw the hermits coming along hand in hand, and the two outer ones beckoning the ship to stop. All three were gliding along upon the water without moving their feet. Before the ship could be stopped, the hermits had reached it, and raising their heads, all three as with one voice, began to say:

"We have forgotten your teaching, servant of God. As long as we kept repeating it we remembered, but when we stopped saying it for a time, a word dropped out, and now it has all gone to pieces. We can remember nothing of it. Teach us again."

The Bishop crossed himself, and leaning over the ship's side, said:

"Your own prayer will reach the Lord, men of God. It is not for me to teach you. Pray for us sinners."

And the Bishop bowed low before the old men; and they turned and went back across the sea. And a light shone until daybreak on the spot where they were lost to sight.



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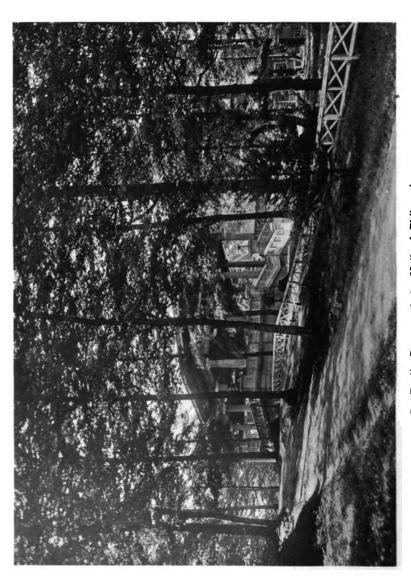
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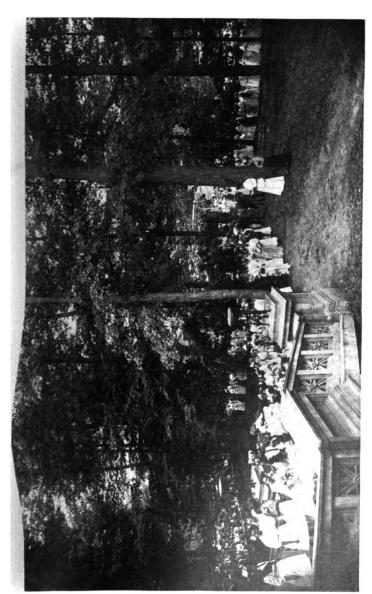
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THE CLASS OF 1908 AT CHAUTAUQUA.

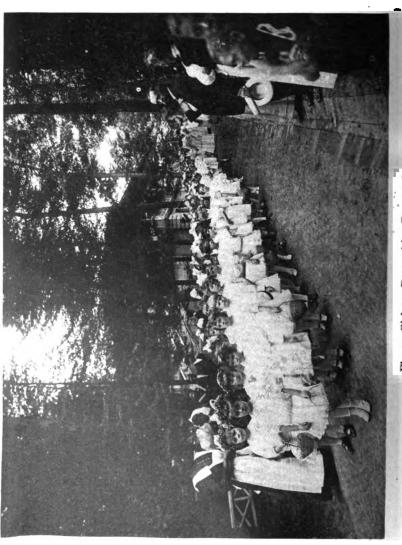
Through four years of reading and five years of class gatherings at Chautauqua, the members of the C. L. S. C. Class of 1908 steadily approached the consummation at Chautauqua of their "college outlook." There were more than a hundred who came and they were men and women of varied experiences and opportunities, typical of the larger number of their class in the outside world who could not be with them to celebrate Recognition Day. Much thought and labor had been given to plans for this graduating day by the committees who had met in previous years and early in the season the indefatigable class secretary, Miss S. E. Ford, called the members together and in the absence of Professor Schmucker, Mr. Henry W. Sage assumed the responsibilities of presiding officer. Much was made of the social life of the Class. Committees called upon members as soon as they reached Chautaugua, readers recounted their four years' experiences to their fellow classmates, and each member was eager to share in all class undertakings. The beautiful Tennyson banner secured through the help of Professor and Mrs. Schmucker, was unveiled, and at this time, one of the older members, Mr. Elias B. Thompson, recited for the class their poem, "Ulysses." It was discovered that certain

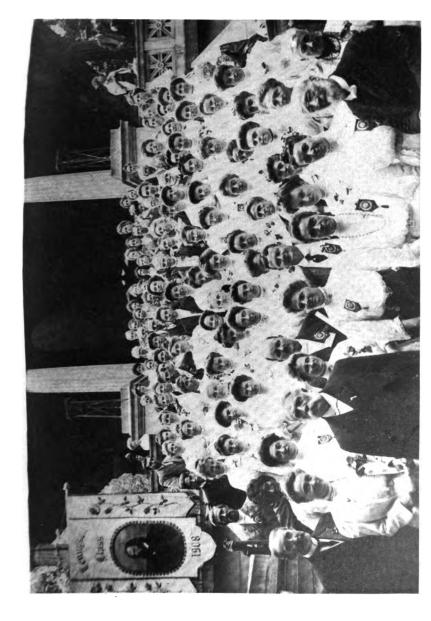


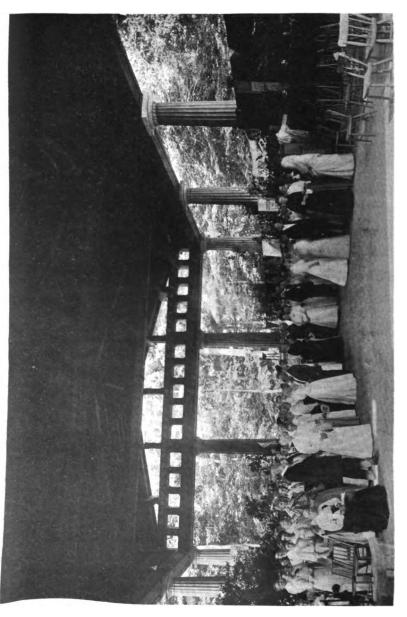


Representatives of the C. L. S. C. Class of 1908 "Passing the Arches" at Chautauqua.









other members of the class had also committed the poem to memory and these were honored by their admiring classmates with the Chautaugua salute! A very acceptable addition to the furnishings of the 1908 Class room was the fine portrait of Tennyson by the famous etcher, M. Rajon. which was presented to the class by Miss Una Jones of Stittville, New York. Miss Jones had followed many an elusive clue in pursuit of a suitable portrait and the members of the class repeatedly expressed their appreciation of this work of art. At one of the '08 "at homes," Chancellor Vincent gave them words of congratulation and counsel, inspired as he always is by a C. L. S. C. graduating class. His theme was the old one which he makes ever new, that the mature mind has powers of interpretation unknown to youth and that the bodily life even of threescore years and ten marks but the dawn of the future growth of the spirit. Spencer, the authority of the "Studies in American Painting" in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, chanced also to be present and gave a suggestive talk on the possibilities of art in daily life. Baccalaureate Sunday brought the never to be forgotten sermon by the Chancellor and in the evening the Class Vigil in the Hall in the Grove under the Athenian Watch Fires. The service comes to each class with new meaning. Again the class poem was read, this time by Dr. Schmucker, Mr. Sage offered a prayer, and Dr. Hurlbut closed the Vigil with the beautiful lines from Morte D'Arthur, a reminder that "the old order changeth."

Preparations for Recognition Day found many committees at work. The letters for the class motto and name were prepared and the unexpected contribution of a thousand paper roses for decorations was revealed to the delighted surprise of the class. This very ingenious plan had been worked out during the year by Miss Florence E. Harpham who had arranged to have the roses made by some friendly workers during the winter. The committees were thus enabled to use their 1908 emblem with great

freedom. The class took pride in going through the gate on Recognition Day with its quota toward Alumni Hall entirely paid and what was quite unusual, raised also a sufficient amount to cover the tablet placed in the Hall of Philosophy, and unveiled at the Recognition Exercises. The Recognition Address by President Henry Churchill King of Oberlin was a delightful experience to many readers who heard for the first time the author of one of their Chautaugua books. Dr. King's "Rational Living" they had studied and practiced during their four years of reading. The conferring of diplomas by the Chancellor took place in the afternoon when many friends of the graduates gathered to see the unique ceremony. The final rally of the class was at the Alumni banquet in the evening when song and story interspersed with class cheers in varied keys betokened the irrepressible spirits of the S. H. G.

The following letter of greeting from Dr. E. E. Hale, one of the C. L. S. C. Counselors, was read by Dr. Hurlbut:

Will you give my regards to the Tennyson Class on Recognition Day. It brings back to me the day when I received my degree as Master of Arts. Tennyson's poems, in the first American edition were just published. I quote the lines in my address which have since become so familiar—
"Through the shadow of the world, we sweep

into the wider Day

Better fifty years of Europe than a cycle of Cathay."

That was in 1842—and the next fifty years made a fine object lesson.

Always yours.

EDWARD E. HALR.

1883—"THE VINCENT CLASS."

It was '83's turn to celebrate its twenty-fifth anniversary this year. The class though somewhat larger in its original enrollment than that of '82 seemed to draw from a more distant territory and its representation at Chautauqua has been comparatively small. But they are a band of choice spirits, these '83's, and their Class Cottage which they share with the '85's has always been a unique place where on reception night some original devices are quite certain to appear. At the anniversary meeting of the class on Recognition Day, letters were read from absent members, among them one from Col. B. P. Pepper of Memphis, Tenn., who said, "The old Class of '83 has a cordial place in my heart and I feel that the work done during the progress of our studies has been invaluable to me. I would not give up the memory and the results of it for any consideration. I feel that no movement in many decades has been a greater source of blessing to wide areas of our country." At the annual class reception on Tuesday night, Chancellor Vincent made a brief address of congratulation to the '83's, who responded with a skilfully worded but seemingly spontaneous cheer, so successfully had they learned to conjure with their name "Vincent." At the Recognition Day Exercises in the Hall of Philosophy the '83 tablet was the first of the class tablets to be dedicated this year.

THE VICENNIAL OF '88.

With the enthusiasm which characterizes Chautauqua graduate reunions, the 88's came up to their twentieth. Casting about for some novel way in which to commemorate their anniversary, a "vicennial breakfast" was proposed as being the most fitting time when the '88's and their guests might "invite their souls" ere the distractions of the day should begin. The result fully justified the expectations of the class. Alumni Hall for the first time echoed to the "sounds of revelry" in the early morning while just across the park the beautiful Aula Christi, shimmering in the morning light, lent its presence to the scene as the guests came and went. On another occasion the members of the class gathered to read letters of greeting from various members and the recent death of a prominent member of the class, Mr. Walton N. Ellis of Brooklyn, N. Y., was recorded. Mr. Ellis was at the time of his death supervisor of music in the Board of Education of Greater New York and earlier in his career director of music at Plymouth Church and assistant to Mr. Frank Damrosch in the People's Choral Society of Manhattan. For a number of years he directed the chorus at Chautauqua during the first half of the session and gave himself enthusiastically to the work of the C. L. S. C. His cheery presence was recalled by many classmates.

The following letter from the Class President, Dr. A. E. Dunning, will be read with interest by many '88's and others who could not be present:

"My Dear Mrs. Teller:

"The Class of '88, numerous and strong, and many of them youthful in the early days have become few in number and bowed with the weight of years. Then my children were with me and none of them had even gone to college. Now my children and children in-law are graduates of seven different colleges and universities and In-law are graduates of seven different colleges and universities and I have grandchildren around me. . . If there are still a half dozen of the Plymouth Rock class with you, give each one my love. I said recently to a friend of mine: 'We are growing old.' 'Yes,' he said cheerfully, 'but it grows better every year.' If the surviving members of '88 can all say that, then we as a C. L. S. C. Class will continue to stand at the head of the procession on Recognition Day and say proudly 'Let us be seen by our deeds.'

"Affectionately yours,

"A. E. Dunning."

THE C. L. S. C. AT CHAUTAUQUA.

Nature lent to Chautauqua her friendliest mood this year and the long summery days with occasional showers and only a touch of the intense heat made a season's record almost unparalleled in the annals of Chautauqua summers. The C. L. S. C. season was characterized by the usual activities, with perhaps a growing tendency toward social gatherings. Rallying Day brought all C. L. S. C. members and their friends together at the opening of the August program and the morning meeting with brief addresses introduced by President Vincent was full of suggestion. Professor Graham Taylor referred to the influence of Chautauqua as he had met it in many parts of the country; Miss Georgie L. Hopkins of the Lithia Springs Chautauqua, gave some glimpses of the work of that important gathering; Mr. Blichfeldt of the Extension Office at Chautauqua, contrasted with the field work the privileges of those who, to use the Scriptural phrase, "tarry at home with the stuff" during the year; Mr. Bray of The Chautauguan, related several incidents of his recent European trip which bore upon the

coming year's study of Modern Europe, and Miss Kimball summed up certain of the comments made by C. L. S. C. readers upon the course of the past year. Chancellor Vincent closed the hour by reminding his hearers that

"The best thing the C. L. S. C. can do is not to place on shelves books that have been read, nor to frame diplomas to which seals have been added, nor to give facility of speech in parlor circles, valuable as this may be. Its best service, he said, is in creating in the individual that mystic indefinable quality called atmosphere, which people feel when they approach us and which is the product of character at the root. The development of personal character through such study as it provides, tones up the individual, enabling him to be genuine and his true self. This he called the sanctum sanctorum of the C. L. S. C."

In the afternoon the usual Rallying Day Reception was held in the Hall of Philosophy where different sections of the country were indicated by gay colored banners and characteristic decorations. These, against a background of green boughs massed between the columns made an effective setting for the various groups who received their friends in the fashion of the South, or the West, or New England, or elsewhere. The "Wide, Wide World" booth gave the C. L. S. C. an opportunity to welcome many visiting missionaries who, whether actual members or not, were looked upon as representative of the C. L. S. C. membership in foreign lands.

Throughout the season C. L. S. C. Round Tables brought frequently to notice the attractive features of the coming Modern European Year. Professor Judd of Yale University, spoke on Student Life in Germany, Dr. Zick of New York, on German Social Customs, Fraulein Rau of Oberlin, on Types of German Cities, President Vincent on the C. L. S. C. book, "Foundations of Modern Europe," President Moffatt of Washington and Jefferson College, on The Church in France, and Miss Meddie Hamilton, representing four Western Chautauquas, on the work of those Assemblies. Many other features of the program bore constant reference to the subjects of next year's course. Readings in European literature by Mrs. Emily M. Bishop and Mrs. Bertha Kunz Baker tended to awaken a widespread interest in the study of European masterpieces, and Profes-

sor C. F. Lavell, well known to Chautauqua readers, gave a fine series of lectures on Modern Europe.

THE NEW FRESHMAN CLASS.

Naturally the new C. L. S. C. Class of 1912 was stimulated by the prevailing atmosphere. The meetings of other classes created a sort of contagion and by Recognition Day when the pageant of graduation exercises seemed to put the finishing touches upon irresolution, the class had rolled up a large membership. Miss Hopkins, whose experience at other Chautauquas made her services invaluable in guiding the 1912s aright, kept "open house" most of the time on the C. L S. C. Veranda, answering the same questions over and over and giving beginners the benefit of her personal experience. By the end of the season the Class had enrolled over three hundred members, many of them intent upon organizing circles as soon as they should return home. The 1912s at an early stage in their career united upon a class name, "Shakespeare." Their motto and emblem proved a more difficult problem. At length the marigold won the day, its brilliant gold color and the fact that it can be secured almost everywhere, being distinctly appropriate qualities for a world poet. It was suggested by an allusion in one of Shakespeare's plays: "The marigold that goes to bed with the sun and with it rises weeping." The old favorite from Hamlet was selected for the Class motto: "To thine own self be true." A very effective temporary banner was borne aloft by the Class on Recognition day, a picture of Shakespeare being mounted on a white background with a bunch of marigold attached to the supporting arm of the banner. The Class elected Mr. Victor Rhodes of St. Louis, for President, and a system of Round Robin letters among members at Chautauqua was planned so that news of their progress might be given from time to time in The Chautauquan. Every member who organizes a circle will be regarded by fellow 1912s as worthy of special honor. The names of the officers will be found on page 308 of this magazine and the Treasurer, Miss Douglas, especially requests that any new members who

would like to join one of the Round Robin groups send their addresses to her.

THE CLASS OF 1909.

The members of the Dante Class at Chautauqua, now become "seniors," showed themselves fully awake to their responsibilities. Under the genial leadership of their President, Rev. William Channing Brown, the members held frequent meetings. They discussed the readings of the past three years, and built up a strong class spirit. Final designs for the Class banner were submitted and the class voted to accept a very effective design which, while more expensive than they had at first considered, was such a beautiful work of art that they were unwilling to be satisfied with anything less. The grape-vine gave a rare opportunity for effective use in a design and the artist worked out a lovely harmony of green and gold and purple on a creamy white background. The members who have been at Chautaugua each summer during the past four years have enthusiastically contributed each year to the three Class funds,—the banner, Alumni Hall where the Class holds its gatherings, and the Hall of Philosophy which includes their tablet. Many members who have not been to Chautauqua will want the privilege of sharing in Class expenses and amounts from a dollar up, or down, may be sent to the Class Treasurer. Every member of 1000 is urged to plan to finish all reading this year on time and any who have fallen behind are assured that they can catch up with a little extra effort. The Dante Class looks forward to a very large attendance at Chautauqua next year and those who cannot go to any assembly count, nevertheless, in making 1909 a memorable Class.

PRICES OF BOOKS ON SWITZERLAND.

The following books announced in the August number to be read in connection with the Reading Journey Through Switzerland are given here again with prices. They were announced in two groups, one book to be selected from each group. This arrangement is not, however, obligatory. Two books may be selected from the same group if more feasible.

A Short History of Switzerland. K. Dändliker, \$2.50.
The Story of Switzerland. R. Stead and Mrs. A. Hug.
\$1.50.

Swiss Life in Town and Country. Story. \$1.20.
A Sovereign People. Henry D. Lloyd. \$1.50 net.
For the second book any one of the following:
Scrambles Among the Alps. E. Whymper. \$5.00.
Hours of Exercise in the Alps. J. Tyndall. \$2.00.
The Playground of Europe. Leslie Stephen. \$1.50.
Our Life in the Swiss Highlands. John Addington and M. A.
Symonds. \$2.50.

MAPS.

Readers are reminded of the very excellent little Pocket Maps of the Rand, McNally series for 25 cents each. The Netherlands is 14x21 inches, Europe 28x21. Outline maps to be filled in by readers can be secured for a few cents each. Address Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, New York.

CLASS NOTES.

On the last pages of this month's Round Table will be found a complete directory of the officers, name, emblem, and motto of each Class.

The Class of '82 voted at its last meeting to paint and repair Pioneer Hall before another season, also to have by another year a pennant with the name Pioneer on one side and on the other their class emblem and year 1882. Each member of the class everywhere was invited to earn a dollar for this purpose during the year and come prepared to tell how it was accomplished or send a letter about it to be read on "Class Family Evening" next season. The matter of an '82 standard, discussed last year, was left open for further report next season. It is hoped that the new barberry hedge around the fountain will in due time become a protection as it is now a thing of beauty. Eighty-four members enrolled for the season and enthusiasm was very marked.

Meetings of The Guild of the Seven Seals at Chautauqua this summer were well attended and interesting. The number of seals reported as on the diplomas of those present aggregated 542. One member reported 106; two over 50; and eight over 30. The special course on Browning as prepared by Mr. P. H. Boynton, was especially commended to Guild readers. The fee for the study pamphlet and memoranda is \$1.00 and may be secured from the C. L. S. C. office.

The Class of '86, which celebrated its decennial by planting trees near Alumni Hall and its vicennial by a gift of \$100 for beautifying the Aula Christi, is now planning a contribution of \$100 to the Hall of Philosophy which includes the laying of their Class tablet. They hope to accomplish this by or before 1911, their 25th anniversary. At the last Class meeting for this year eleven members held a "tea" at Mrs. Chaney's home and at its conclusion gave in honor of their hostess and for the first time the '86 "yell" which had been formally adopted:

Rah, rah, rah! We are one of the cliques. We are the "Progressives," The Class of 86.

The Classes of '85, '05, and '96 were among those who dedicated

their tablets in the Hall of Philosophy this summer. The '96's placed on the margin of their's a brass tablet inscribed "Seaton Memorial" in remembrance of their Class President, Mr. John A. Seaton.

The decennial exercises of the Class of '98 were held in their Class room on August 17. Greetings were extended by Mr. Z. L. White, President of the Class of '90, and Miss Irene I. F. Roach, Secretary of the Class of 1906, these two classes being fellow room mates of '98. Chancellor Vincent was also invited to be present and received from the Class a gift of forty dollars for the Aula Christi. His response showed how deeply he feels the importance of the Aula Christi in the future life of Chautauqua and his appreciation of the efforts of the C. L. S. C. members to make the realization of his dream complete.

The members of the Class of 1910, the "Gladstone" Class, received from their Secretary, Miss Harris, who is sojourning in Europe, a fine reproduction of the painting of Gladstone, by John Everett Millais, which hangs in the National Portrait Gallery in

London.

The Class of 1911 postponed the selection of its motto and emblem until this year. Its name as selected last year is Long-fellow. The motto chosen is "Act, act in the living present," and the emblem, the chestnut. The latter is closely associated with Long-fellow, and is a tree that grows very widely. Its foliage is exceptionally beautiful. The design of the new Class banner is to be a full length figure of the young Hiawatha, the hero of Longfellow's great epic.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR NOVEMBER.

FIRST WEEK-OCTOBER 29-NOVEMBER 5.

In the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapters IV. and V. Napoleon. Parts I. and II.

SECOND WEEK-NOV. 5-12..

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: The Friendship of Nations, Part II. Danger Points of Conflict Around the Globe.

In the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapter VI. Napoleon. Part III.

THIRD WEEK-NOV. 12-19.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "Dutch Art and Artists." Chapter II. Rembrandt.

In the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapter VII. Napoleon. Part IV.

FOURTH WEEK-NOV. 19-26.

In The Chautauquan: "A Reading Journey in the Hollow Land." Chapter II. Characteristics of the Hollow-Land.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

FIRST WEEK.

- Paper: Sketch of Napoleon's life up to the time of his Nile expedition.
- 2. Paper: Josephine Beauharnais. (See lives of Napoleon).
- 3. Review with summary of chief points in Chapter on Napoleon, Part I.
- 4 Brief Oral Reports: Striking qualities of Richlieu, Kaunitz, and

Loyola. Conditions in France which preceded the coming of Henry IV.; In England of Cromwell. (These reports might be given in connection with the review of the Chapter).

Roll Call: Answers to the question, What three important facts have most impressed you in reading these first two chapters?

SECOND WEEK.

Discussion of traits of the Kaiser as given in the September and October CHAUTAUQUANS.

Review with summary of article on Danger Points around the 2. Globe.

Paper: The recent trouble between Italy and Turkey. (See 3. current magazines and weeklies.)

Roll Call: Items of current interest relative to the Danger

Points around the Globe.

Review with summary of chapter on Napoleon, Part III.

Answers to the question,—Can you find any parallel between the relations of the different countries in Napoleon's time and international relations today? A different country might be assigned to each of several members to consider and report upon.

THIRD WEEK.

Review of chapter on Napoleon, Part IV. I.

Character Sketch: Charles V. (See histories, encyclopedias, 2.

Reading: Selections from articles entitled "Strange Lineage of 3.

a Royal Baby," Cosmopolitan 43:465, September, 1907. Oral Reports: Personal traits of William of Orange; the situation which Europe presented in his day; his qualities as a statesman. (See all available histories, biographies, Library Shelf in September CHAUTAUQUAN, etc.)

Reading: Selection from the Siege of Leyden. (See Library 5.

Shelf in this magazine.)

Paper: Rembrandt. (See bibliography following the article, also 6.

magazine reference).

Study of the article on Rembrandt. Each member should be 7. assigned one of the pictures described by Mr. Zug and point out how it illustrates the artist's characteristics. There is a monograph on Rembrandt in the Masters in Art Series containing ten fine illustrations and much interesting and valuable comment. Many good pictures can be found in old magazines and it will be helpful to study pictures not described by Mr. Zug and see how far the reader can apply his suggestions.

FOURTH WEEK.

1. Paper: "The Fight with the Waters" in Holland. (See a very interesting chapter with this title in "Holland and the Hollanders" by Meldrum. If this book is not available look up articles and encyclopedia references on Holland.)

Roll Call: Answered by giving characteristics of the eleven provinces. (See any available book, encyclopedias, etc. In "Holland Described by Great Writers" by Singleton, there

is a chapter on The Dutch Race.)

Paper: "Father Cats." (See Warner Library of the World's Best Literature, encyclopedias, etc.)

4. Review and Discussion of Essay by Austin Dobson on Jacob Cats with study of the illustrations.

5. Pronunciation Match on Dutch proper names.

THE TRAVEL CLUB.

Special programs for Graduate Circles and Clubs specializing upon the two Dutch series. (A copy of Baedecker's "Belgium and Holland" is quite indispensable for such clubs).

FIRST WEEK.

I. Paper: "The Fight with the Waters." (See a very interesting chapter with this title in "Holland and the Hollanders" by Meldrum. A map showing relations of land and water would add much to the value of such a paper.)

 Roll Call: Answered by giving characteristics of the eleven provinces. (See chapter on The Dutch Race in Holland Described by Great Writers, also encyclopedias and all avail-

able books).

 Oral Report with reading of selections from "Holland and its People by De Amicis, chapter on Leyden; description of founding of University of Leyden and of the famous Siege. (See also article in Harper's Magasine, March, 1881.)

4. Paper: Maurice and John of Barneveld. (See Motley's works, Roger's "Story of Holland," and "Brave Little Holland" by

Griffis.)

5. Study of the article on Frans Hals in the September Chautauquan. Each member should be assigned one of the pictures described, showing how it illustrates the artist's characteristics. All other available pictures should be secured. The monograph on "Hals" in the "Masters in Art Series" contains ten fine half-tones and can be secured for twenty cents. Many good pictures can be found in old magazines.

SECOND WEEK.

 Oral Reports: Some characteristics of the Gemunte; The Provincial States; The States General. (See "Holland and the Hollanders," Meldrum.)

. Paper: Hugo Grotius.

 Reading: Selection from the chapter entitled A Dutch Village in "Dutch Life in Town and Country."

4 Papar: Father Cats. (See Warner Library of the World's Best Literature, encyclopedias, etc.)

. Review and Discussion of Essay by Austin Dobson on Jacob Cats with study of the illustrations.

6. Pronunciation match on Dutch proper names.

THIRD WEEK.

1. Paper: The Dutch East India Company. (See encyclopedias, histories, etc.)

2. Map review: Dutch possessions the world over.
3. Roll Call: Current news relating to Holland.

4. Paper: Life of Rembrandt. (See references at end of article in this magazine.)

5. Study of Article on Rembrandt in this number of The Chau-TAUQUAN. (See suggestions on Hals under program for first week.)

FOURTH WEEK.

Paper: Martin Harpertsson Tromp. (See "Naval Heroes of Holland" by J. A. Mets, encyclopedias and histories.)
Oral Report: The Dutch Army and Navy of Today. (See

Dutch Life in Town and Country.)

Paper: De Ruyter and the Fight with England. (See histories. encyclopedias, and the Library Shelf in November Chautau-QUAN.)

Roll Call.

Reading: Selection from the chapter on Helder by De Amicis in "Holland and its People."

REVIEW AND SEARCH QUESTIONS ON NOVEMBER READINGS.

THE FRIENDSHIP OF NATIONS, CHAPTER II. DANGER POINTS AROUND THE GLOBE.

I. What recent events illustrate the ease with which international complications may arise? 2. What seemed to be the chief danger points six years ago? 3. How has the situation changed in Korea and India? 4. What views have been held by several countries regarding the aggressiveness of Germany? 5. What means has Germany taken to dispel these ideas? 5. What statements were made by the German Ambassador? 7. How has Austro-Hungary seemed to menace the peace of Europe? 8. In what way has the unity of Austria been promoted? 9. Why has Hungary also seemed to accept the situation for the present? 10. What four danger points suggest at present possible trouble? 11. What leading diplomats have regarded the Macedonian problem with apprehension. 12. To what provinces is the name Macedonia now applied? 13. What causes keep them in a restless condition? 14. Why do the powers fear to give autonomy to Macedonia? 15. Why have recent attempts at reform proved unsuccessful? 16. What serious problems is attempted? lems will arise if complete autonomy for Macedonia is attempted? 17. What ambitions has Italy in the Balkans? 18. How do her claims conflict with those of Austria? 19. Why does France lay claim to Morocco? 20. What blocks her way? 21. What two solutions of the situation are possible? 22. What view of Russo-Japanese conditions is given in the volume "The New Far East?" 23. How does Mr. Putnam-Weale in his "The Truce in the Far East" regard the situation? 24. What serious friction has recently arisen between Japan and China? 25. What charge against Japan is made by England and America? 26. Why must Russia construct a new line to Vladivostock? 27. What difficult problem is presented by the Aland Islands? 28. How are Germany and Russia "imprisoned empires?"

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON A READING JOURNEY IN THE HOLLOW LAND. Chapter II.

I. How does the Dutch government provide for the care of the dykes? 2. What is the character of the Dutch climate? 3. What are the chief Dutch coins? 4. What are the three chief governing bodies in Holland? 5. Describe briefly the nature of each. 6. What portfolios are held by the Cabinet ministers? 7. What is the "Raad Van Staat"? 8. How is the army secured? 9. What is the size of the army on a peace footing? 10. Give some significant figures from the national budget. II. What are the chief religious bodies in Holland? 12. Gives some figures showing the growth and present population of Holland. 13. Give some characteristics of the Dutch language. 14. Name the eleven provinces of the Netherlands. 15. Give the capital of each. 16. What relation has Luxemburg to Holland? 17. What are the most important Dutch colonies in the East and West Indies? 18. How much of a navy has Holland? 19. How have the natural boundaries of Holland on the land side affected its history? 20. What influence upon Dutch character has been exerted by the sea? 21. Compare the literary development of the Dutchman with that of his English and German neighbors.

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON DUTCH ART AND ARTISTS.

I. What was the nature of Rembrandt's early education? 2. Under what teachers did he receive art instruction? 3. What does the date of the Anatomy lesson argue as to his industry? 4. How does Rembrandt's treatment of this subject compare with that of his predecessors? 5. What qualities of this work show that it belongs to the early part of his career? 6. What is meant by the "emancipated Rembrandt?" 7. What is the general character of "The Night Watch?" 8. Compare this picture with a similar one by Van der Helst. 9. Why was his treatment of this unsatisfactory to his sitters? 10. What does Fronentin mean by Rembrandt's two natures? 11. In what famous picture are these dual natures harmonized? 12. Describe his treatment of this subject. 13. Give some of the characteristics of his portraits, the Shipbuilder and his Wife, etc. 14. In what way does he suggest Giotto and Millet? 15. In what portraits are his deeper qualities shown? 16. Compare Rubens, Velasquez, and Rembrandt. 17. In what quality is he unique?

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

I. Who was Harold Frederic? 2. What countries compose the Balkan States? 3. When did the island of Crete escape from Turkish control. 4. Where is the province of Adrianople? 5. Who is the present ruler of Morocco? 6. What are littoral powers?

I. Who was Hans Breitmann? 2. How does the Dutch navy

1. Who was Hans Breitmann? 2. How does the Dutch navy compare in numbers with that of Germany and the United States?
3. Who was De Ruyter? 4. What is the motto of the Dutch Republic? 5. What was the Dutch East India Company? 6. Where are the most famous picture galleries in Holland?

ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON OCTOBER READ-ING.

I. A movement which in theory stands for extreme individualism and independence of authority in government except such as may arise spontaneously. It has been influential in bringing about revolts among the peasants and attempts at Constitutional reforms. 2. An Englishman, late London correspondent of the New York Times and Chicago Tribune. Studied in France, graduated at Harvard in 1881, student at Leipzig University in 1881-3. Inaugurated in 1882 agitation for preservation of Niagara Falls. For some years on staff of Pall Mall Gasette and London Chronicle. Traveled extensively. Author of "The Real Japan," "All the Russias," "People and Politics of the Far East," "The New East," etc. 3. A French army occupied the country in 1881 and established a French protectorate ostensibly with the purpose

of protecting Algeria from raids into her territory which was under French control. 4. Prince Bernard von Bülow. 5. James Bryce; Jean J. Jusserand; (to be appointed); Baron Rosen; E. Mayor des Planches; L. Hengelmuller von Hengervar. 6. M. Clemenceau; Armand Falliéres.

1. Founded by Philip the Good of Burgundy 1430 on occasion of marriage to Isabella of Portugal. Office of Grand Master passed to the House of Hapsburg in 1477 with acquisition of Burgundy. After death of Charles V the office exercised by Spanish kings. Austria claimed it after the Netheralnds were ceded to her in 1713. Dispute was undecided and the Order now exists separtely in both countries. The badge is a golden ram pendent from a jewel of elaborate design with the motto "Pretium laborum non vile." 2. The Duchy of Burgundy proper, a French fief lay between Champagne on the north, Franche-Comté and Savoy on the east, Dauphiné and Lyonnais on the south and Bourbonnais, Nivernais, and Or-léanais on the west. Under Charles the Bold Franche-Comté and the Low Countries were added to it. 3. No imposition of taxes without consent of provincial estates. Cities not to be compelled to contribute to requests which they have not voted. No ruler shall begin an offensive or defensive war without consent of the estates. 4. The "Beggars" was a name assumed by a league of Protestant Flemish nobles organized to resist the encroachments of Philip. Their name and friar's dress gave them an appearance of humility which cloaked their audacity. 5. An organized slaughter of from 20,000 to 30,000 French Protestants in Paris and the Provinces instigated by Catherine dé Medici in 1572.

 Sir Anthony Vandyke or Van Dyck. A famous Flemish painter of the seventeenth century. A pupil of Rubens. 2. Portraits of Charles I and his family and famous men of the time. A crucifixion at Mechlin. Elevation of the Cross at Courtrai. St.

Augustine at Antwerp.

GLOSSARY.

In the following glossary will be found a number of words whose pronunciation cannot be indicated accurately by spelling. They are marked with a star. The capital N stands for the French nasal sound, and to get the correct idea of this sound and of the French eu, also the German ch and the umlaut, the reader is advised to ask some friend who has studied French or German to help him. Circles will find it worth while to secure a teacher who can give them a number of short drills on the principles of pronunciation of French and German. Many of the European proper names which one encounters have been so thoroughly anglicised that it is advisable to use only the English form. Other lists of proper names will appear from month to month. The Century Dictionary has been followed in the following list, the emphatic syllables being indicated by italics. Persons who find it inconvenient to secure a teacher may receive some help from the following suggestions:

The two little dots over a vowel in German, called the Umlaut, stand for an e that used to form part of the syllable. The sound of ü may be produced by keeping the lips in the position of saying the oo sound in poor and trying to utter the ee sound of peer.

A syllable marked thus tre(r)me(r), etc., indicates that e should be given the sound which it has in er though the r should

not be sounded.

Franche-Comté

Artois Van Eyck Vasari Hobbenna Van der Heyden Hondecoeter Van Miers

Steen
*Ter Borch
Liverens
Rembrandt

Maes

Rembrandt
Hals
*Hooch
Hoogh
Wouverman
Van Ostade
Leys

Van's Gravesande *Tromentin Velasquez

Correggio Delfshaven Mierevelt Leyster Grooot Farnese

*Scheveningen *Walcheren Gouda

Curação Celebes Schwerin Ruisdael Cuyp Descater Pyrmont

Waldeck
*Pichegru
Tromp
DeRuyter

Oldenbarneveld Jacqueline Charlemagne

Frisian Scheffer Alma-Tadema

Stavoren Enkhuisen

Enkhuiser Hoorn Broek Alkmaar Courtrai Brabant froNsh-koN-tay

(French nasal sound)

ahr tuah van-ike vah-sah-ree hob-beh-mah van-der-hy-den hon deh-koo-ter van-me-ris mahs

stane tair booren (Ger. ch)

lee-vens
rem-brant
hahls
hoch (Ger. ch)

noag wou-ver-mahn

van-os-tah-deh lice

vans-grali veh-zahn-deh

fro-moN-taN (Fr nasal sound) vay-lahs-kayth

kor-red-jo delfs-hah--ven me-reh-velt lice ter grote fahr-may-see

schay-ven-in-ghen (Gr. ch)

val-cher-en (Ger. ch)

koo-rah-sah-o sel-eh-behs shvay-reen roys-dahl koyp day-kart peer-mont vahl-deck

peesh-gru (Ger. u)

tromp de *roy*-ter

ol-den-bar-neh-velt

zhahk-lcen char-leh-mane fris-ian shef-fer

ahl-mah-tah-deh-mah

stah-vo-ren enk-hoi-zen horn brook ahlk-mahr koor-tray brah-bant Drenthe Friesland Guelderland Groningeu Overyssel Utrecht Zuider Zee Hainault Luxemburg Scheldt Hertogenbosch Arnhem Leeuwarden *Maastricht Zwolle *Verdun Bruges Naarden Breda

dren-teh freez-land gel-der-land gro-ning-ghen o-ver-ice-sel u-trekt zv-der-zee hay-no luk-sem-berg skelt hair-to-ghen-bosch arn-hem ler-wahr-den (omit r sound) mahs-tricht (Ger. ch) *zwoi*-leh vair-duN (Fr. nasal sound) broo-jez nahr-den bray-dah

C. L. S. C. Class Directory

OFFICERS OF CLASS OF 1912.

President, Mr. Victor Rhodes, 5812 Cates Avenue, St. Louis, Mo. Vice-President, Mrs. E. Robinson, Oil City, Pa. Vice-President, Mrs. C. W. Wright, Cave Spring, Georgia. Vice-President, Mr. Harvey Brugger, Fremont, Ohio. Treasurer, Miss Julia H. Douglas, 170 W. 59th St., New York City. Secretary, Miss Grace L. Libby, 1922 East 81st street, Cleveland, Ohio.

CLASS OF 1911-"LONGFELLOW."

Motto: "Act, act in the living present." Emblem: The Chestnut.
President, Miss Mary E. Merington, 535 Massachueetts Ave., Buffalo, N. Y.
Vice-presidents, Mr. John Giaham Brooks, Cambridge, Mass.; Mr. Richard
Burton, University of Minnesota; Mr. C. E. Munson, Columbus, Ohio; Miss
Louise Iliff, University Park, Colorado; Miss S. C. Martin, Elizabeth, N. J.;
Mrs. Margaret Jackson, Gainesville, Florida.
Recording Secretary, Miss Florence Bonn, Baltimore, Md.
Secretary and Treasurer, Mrs. S. H. Bouton, Box 330, Rochester, N. Y.
Trustee, Mr. Albert B. Gemmer, Buffalo, N. Y.

CLASS OF 1910-"GLADSTONE."

Motto: "Life is a great and noble calling." Emblem: The Beach.
President, Mr. Arthur E. Bestor, Hyde Park, Chicago.
Vice-presidents, Mr. E. H. Blichfeldt, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Miss Ada Van
Stone Harris, Rochester, N. Y.; Rev. A. J. Terryberry, Southampton, Ont.;
Mr. J. J. McWilliams, Cleveland, Ohio; Mr. S. L. Joshi, Bombay, India; Mr.
A. W. Muse, Albany, Ga.; Mrs. Clifford A. Lanier, Montgomery, Ala.; Mrs.
Joseph R. Patton, Atlanta, Illinois; Miss G. E. Reynolds, 368 W. 84th street,
New York City.
Secretary, Miss Caroline Harris, 71 East 44th St., Chicago, Illinois.
Treasurer and Trustee, Mr. J. F. Rowley, 44 Collamer, East Cleveland, O.
CLASS OF 1909—"DANTE."

Motto: "On and fear not." Emblem: The Grape Vine.

President, Rev. Wm. Channing Brown, Littleton, Mass.
Vice-presidents, Mrs. Emily M. Bishop, New York City; Mrs. Bertha
Kunz-Baker, Staten Island, N. Y.; Mr. Charles Currier Beale, Boston, Mass.;
Miss Leonora Cox, Devonshire, Bermuda Islands; Mrs. R. A. Clemson, Tarpon
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Weed, New York City, N. Y.; Miss Adele Brewer, Stockbridge, Mass.
Secretary, Mrs. Mary H. Waldron, Newburn, Tenn.
Treasurer, Mr. B. A. Allen, 1901 4th street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

GRADUATE CLASSES

Motto: "To strive, to seek, to find, and not to yield." Emblem: The Red Rose. Honorary President, Prof. S. C. Schmucker, West Chester, Pa. President, Mrs. H. R. Hartley, Beaver, Pa. Vice-presidents, Mr. Henry Ward Sage, Lawrence, Kan.; Mrs. C. H. Vice-presidents, Fla.; Rev. S. F. Willis, New York City; Senorita Maria del Pilar Zamora, Manila, P. I.; George W. Downing, Binghamton, N. Y.; Mrs. T. H. Loller, Denison, O.; Mrs. Mary M. T. Runnels, Nipino, Cal.; Miss Millicent E. Stone, Toronto, Canada; Mrs. Joseph Burton Dibrell, Seguin, Tex. Secretary-Treasurer, Miss Sarah E. Ford, 169 Court St., Binghamton, N. Y.

CLASS OF 1907-"GEORGE WASHINGTON."

Motto: "The aim of education is character." Emblem: The Scarlet Salvia. President, Rev. C. A. Clark, Punxsutawney, Pa. Vice-presidents, Dr. George D. Kellogg, Princeton, N. J.; Miss Rannie Webster, Oil City, Pa.; Mrs. J. C. B. Stivers, Cleveland, Ohio; Miss Margaret H. McPherson, Baltimore, Md.; Mrs. George Coblentz, Clarion, Pa.; Mr. James Weisel, Birmingham, Ala. Secretary and Treasurer, Mrs. Albert Jordan, Punxsutawney, Pa. Trustee, Mrs. George Coblentz, Clarion, Pa.

CLASS OF 1006-"JOHN RUSKIN."

Motto: "To love light and seek knowledge must be always right." Emblem:
The Lily.

The Lily.

Honorary President, Bishop W. F. Oldham, India.

President, Mr. Carlton Hillyer, Augusta, Ga.

Honorary Member, Mr. Edward Howard Griggs, Montelair, N. J.

Vice-presidents, Mr. Clifford B. LePage, Mt. Vernon, N. Y.; James H.

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Secretary-Treasurer and Trustee, Miss Irena I. F. Roach, 261 4th avenue,

Lans. Station, Troy, N. Y.

CLASS OF 1905—"THE COSMOFOLITANS."

Class Poet: Robert Browning.

Motto: "A man's reach should exceed his grasp." Emblem: The Cosmos.

President, Dr. J. A. Babbitt, Haverford, Pa.

Vice-presidents, Mrs. Evelyn Snead Barnett, Louisville, Ky.; Mr. C. D.

Firestone, Columbus, O.; Miss Mary K. Bissell, Cincinnati, O.; Dr. Russell
M. Warren, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Mr. George Wharton James, Pasadena, Cal.;

Christina I. Tingling, London, England; Mrs. Richard Patten, Cardenas,

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Secretary and Treasurer, Miss Eleanor McCready, 614 Auburn Ave.,

Buffalo, N. Y.

Trustee, Mr. Edwin H. Sibley Resulting De-

Trustee, Mr. Edwin H. Sibley, Franklin, Pa.

CLASS OF 1904-"LEWIS MILLER."

Motto: "The horizon widens as we climb." Emblem: The Clematis. Vice-presidents, Rev. J. M. Howard, Waynesburg, Pa.; Mrs. A. M. Parker, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mrs. Katherine Chapman, Selma, Ala.; Miss Louise Nicholson, Arcola, Illinois; Mr. J. O. Peace, Louisville, Ky.; Lieut. J. D. Rogers, H. M. S. Waterloo, Australian Station; Mr. Scott Brown, South Bend, Indiana; Mr. Francis Wilson, New Rochelle, N. Y.; Mrs. Cozzeno, Cleveland. land, O.
Secretary, Miss J. S. Luqueer, 438 Classon Avenue, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Treasurer, Miss Susie Parker, Brooklyn, N. Y.

CLASS OF 1903-"QUARTER-CENTURY" CLASS.

Motto: "What is excellent is permanent." Emblem: The Cornflower: Three ears of corn (red, white, and blue).

President, Mrs. Alice M. Hemenway, Edgewood, Providence, Rhode Island. Vice-presidents, Mr. F. C. Bray, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Mrs. J. J. Covert, Pittsburg, Pa.; Mrs. G. M. Luccock, Washington, D. C.; Mr. Walter Weeden, Hogn: Mr. Clem Studebaker, South Bend, Ind.; Mrs. William E. Magill, Erie, Pa.; Mrs. Harriet Woodcock, Nashville, Tenn.; Mrs. W. E. Marden, Fowler, Cal.; Mrs. T. B. Fellows, Columbus, O.; Mrs. H. A. Wheeler, Union City. Pa. City, Pa.

Secretary, Mrs. W. T. Hall, Tarentum, Pa. Assistant Secretary, Miss E. Merritt, Kewanee, Ill. Treasurer and Trustee, Mrs. J. W. Clark, New Castle, Pa.

CLASS OF 1902-"THE ALTRURIANS."

Motto: "Not for self, but for all." Emblem: The Golden Glow.
President, Mrs. Carlton Hillyer, Augusta, Ga.
Vice-tre-sidents, Dr. G. N. Luccock, Oak Park, Ill.; Dr. E. L. Wallen,
Louisville, Ky.; Mrs. Josephine Braman, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Miss H. M.
Brewn, St. Louis: Mrs. O. P. Norton, Chicago, Ill.; Mr. C. M. Steldard,
Plattsburg, Ill.; Miss Mulets, Norfolk, Nebr.; Mrs. F. M. Keefe, Waltham,
Mass.; Mrs. E. H. Baumgartner, Decatur, Texas; Mrs. Robert F. Thorne,
Louisville, Ky.; Miss E. Kay, New York City.
Secretary, Mrs. Belle K. Richards, Oil City, Pa.
Treasurer, Nrs. Carlton Hillyer, Augusta, Ga.
Trustee, Prof. J. C. Armstrong, Pittsburg, Pa.

CLASS OF 1001-"THE TWENTIETH CENTURY."

Motto. "Light, Love, Life." Emblem: The Palm.
President, Dr. Wm. S. Bainbridge, New York City.
Vice-trestients Mrs. Samuel George, Wellswille, W. Va.; Mrs. Ettsworth Savage, Churchville, N. Y.; Miss Clara Mathews, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Miss F. A. P. Spurway, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Miss Caroline Leech, Louiwille, Ry; Miss Ilizabeth Stewart, Orange, N. J.; Mrs. Elizabeth Stockton, Williamsburg, O. Miss Margaret Hackley, Georgetown, Ky.; Mrs. Laura Banks, New York City.
Secretary and Treasurer, Mrs. M. W. Jamieson, Warren, Pa. Class Trustee. Mrs. Lawrence. Brooklyn, N. Y.

Class 1: usice. Mrs. Lawrence, Brooklyn, N. Y.

CLASS OF 1900-"THE NINETEENTH CENTURY."

Metto: "Faith in the God of Truth; hope for the unfolding centuries; charity toward all endeavor," "Licht, Liebe, Leben." Emblem: The Pine. President, Miss Mabel Campbell, New York City. Vice-presidents, Mrs. William J. Ritchey, Pittsburg, Pa.; Mrs. Hannah Shur, El l'asc. Illinois; Mrs. J. Preston Hall, Fredonia, N. Y.; Miss Mary f. Fuhruan, Snrevport, La.; Miss Frances Cuddy, Ponce, Porto Rico. Secretary and Treasurer, Miss Ella V. Ricker, Fredericksburg, Va. Trustec, Miss Ella V. Ricker.

CLASS OF 1899-"THE PATRIOTS."

Nictto: "Fidelity, Fraternity." Emblem: The Flag.
President, Captain J. A. Travis, 1008 E. Capitol street, Washington, D. C.
Vice-presidents, Miss Martha A. Bortle, Washington, D. C.; Mr. J. C.
Martin, New York City; Mr. P. W. Bemis, Westfield, N. Y.
Secretary, Mrs. S. R. Strong, Chautaudua, New York.
Treasurer, Mrs. J. V. Ritts, Butler, Pa.
Trustee, Mr. J. W. Ford, Hiram, O.

CLASS OF 1808-"THE LANIERS."

Motto: "The humblest life that lives may be divine." Emblem: The Violet. President, Mrs. M. M. Findlay, Franklin, Pa. Vice-presidents, Mrs. E. S. Watrous, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mrs. R. P. Hopper, West Toronto, Ont.; Mrs. Isabella M. Hazeltine, Warren, Pa.; Miss J. A. Wilmot, Cleveland, O.; Miss Ella Scofield, Warren, Pa. Secretary, Mrs. F. M. Nichols, Atlantic, Iowa. Treasurer and Trustee, Miss Fannie B. Collins, Grand View, Ohio.

CLASS OF 1897-"THE ROMANS."

Motto: "Veni Vidi, Vici." Emblem: The Ivy.
President, Miss Mary Wallace Kimball, 27 W. 38th street, New York City.
Vice-presidents: E. P. Mackie, New Orleans, La.; W. H. Blanchard,
Westminster, Vt.; Mrs. A. P. Crossgrove, Pilot Point, Tex.
Secretary, Miss Ella E. Smith, New Haven, Conn.
Assistant Secretary, Mrs. C. M. Thomas, Grove City, Pa.

CLASS OF 1896-"THE TRUTH SEEKERS."

Motto: "Truth is eternal." Emblems: The Forget-me-not. The Greek Lamp-President, Mr. Frank D. Frisbee, Newton, Mass. Vice-presidents: Miss Sarah E. Briggs, New Haven, Conn.; Mr. H. W. Sadd, Wapping, Conn.; Mrs. Cynthia A. Butler, Pittsfield, Ill.; Mrs. Mary

Hogan Ludlum, St. Louis, Mo.; Mrs. John D. Hamilton, Coraopolis, Pa.; Mrs. Frances Wood, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Mrs. Margaret A. Seaton, Cleveland, O.; Mr. Sidney R. Miller, Union City, Pa.; Dr. Wm. C. Bower, Lebanon, Kan.; Miss Mabel I. Fullagar, Penn Yan, N. Y.; Mr. Geo. H. Lincks, Jersey City, N. J.; Dr. Geo. W. Peck, Buffalo, N. Y. Secretary and Treasurer, Miss Emily E. Birchard, 28 Penrose Avenue, Cleveland, O.

Trustee, Mr. J. R. Conner, Franklin, Pa.

CLASS OF 1895-"THE PATHFINDERS."

Motto: "The truth shall make you free." Emblem: The Nasturtium. Honorary President, Mr. Robert Miller, Ponce, Porto Rico. President, Mrs. George P. Hukill, Oil City, Pa. Vice-presidents, Miss Mary Miller, Akron, Ohio; Mrs. E. H. Peters, Newark, N. J.; Mrs. O. A. Jones, Rimersburg, Pa.; Mrs. Charles, Cuba, N. Y. Secretary and Trustee, Miss A. Lawrence, Brooklyn, N. Y., 724 Flatbush

Treasurer, Miss F. M. Hazen, Chautaugua, N. Y.

CLASS OF 1894-"THE PHILOMATHEANS."

Motto: "Ubi mel, ibi apes." Emblem: The Clover.
President, Rev. A. C. Ellis, Oil City, Pa.
Vice-presidents, Rev. D. A. Cunningham, D. D., Wheeling, W. Va.; Rev.
J. B. Countryman, Penfield, N. Y.; Miss M. L. Monroe, Southport, Conn.;
Mrs. J. W. Ralston, Chicago, Ill.; Mrs. J. M. Coble, Dallas, Tex.; Mr. James A.
Moore, Allegheny, Pa.; Mrs. A. P. Clark, Zanesville, O.
Secretary and Treasurer, Miss Anna M. Thomson, Chautauqua, N. Y.
Trustee, Rev. D. A. Cunningham, Wheeling, W. Va.

CLASS OF 1803-"THE ATHENIAMS."

Motto: "Study to be what you wish to seem." Emblem: The Acorn. Honorary President, Rev. Chas. Thayer, Minneapolis, Minn. President, Rev. M. D. Lichliter, 1325 Otter street, Franklin, Pa. Vice-presidents, Dr. George E. Vincent, University of Chicago; Mrs. Mary B. Ashton, Hamilton, O.; Mr. W. H. Conrad, Port Jervis, N. Y.; Mr. W. H. Scott, Syracuse, N. Y.; Mr. E. Henry Levy, Jamaica, N. Y.; Mrs. Daniel Paul, Washington, D. C.; Mrs. H. C. Pbarr, Berwick, La.; Mrs. Julia H. Thayer, Sherman, N. Y.; Mrs. T. H. Paden, New Concord, O.; Mrs. J. H. Roblee, St. Louis, Mo.

Secretary, Mrs. Anna R. Silvers, Belfast, N. Y.

Secretary, Mrs. Anna R. Silvers, Belfast, N. Y. Treasurer, Mrs. Julia H. Thayer, Sherman, N. Y. Class Trustee, Mr. T. H. Paden, New Concord, Ohio.

CLASS OF 1892-"THE COLUMBIANS."

CLASS OF 1892—"THE COLUMBIANS."

CLASS OF 1892—"THE COLUMBIANS."

ENDING: "Seek and ye shall find." Emblem: The Carnation.

President, Mrs. T. E. McCray, Bradford, Pa.

First Vice-president, Mrs. Eloise L. Cotton, Griggsville, Ill.

Second Vice-president, Miss M. E. F. Eaton, Southport, Conn.

District Vice-presidents, Mrs. J. H. Vincent, Indianapolis, Ind.; Mrs.

J. L. Hurlbut, Bloomfield, N. J.; Mrs. L. M. Beardsley, Derby, Conn.; Mrs.

High, Miss Heitzmann.

Secretary and Treasurer, Mrs. Lillian B. Clarke, Andover, N. Y.

Trustee, Miss Lydia M. Campbell, Chicago, Ill.

CLASS OF 1891-"THE OLYMPIANS."

Motto: "So run that ye may obtain." Emblem: The Laurel and the White Rose.
President, Mrs. George Guernsey, Independence, Kan.
Vice-presidents, Miss Laura E. Dibble, Ashland, Ky.; Miss Jennie Wilsamson, Louisville, Ky.
Secretary, Mrs. L. L. Hunter, Tidioute, Pa.
Treasurer, Miss M. A. Daniels, New Britain, Conn.
Trustee, Mrs. William Breeden, Jamestown, N. Y.
Historian, Miss M. A. Daniels, New Britain, Conn.

CLASS OF 1890-"THE PIERIANS."

Motto: "Redeeming the time." Emblem: The Tuberose.
President, Mr. Z. L. White, Columbus, O.
Vice-presidents, Mrs. A. M. Martin, Los Angeles, Cal.; Mrs. M.
Ahlstrom, Jamestown, N. Y.; Miss S. S. Paddock, Jersey City, N. J.
Secretary, Miss Sarah L. Balfe, Toledo, O.

Treasurer, Mrs. Z. L. White, Columbus, O. Trustee, Mrs. M. M. Ahlstrom.

CLASS OF 1880-"THE ARGONAUTS."

Motto: "Knowledge unused for the good of others is more vain than unused gold." Emblem: The Daisy.

President, W. A. Hutchison, D. D., Augusta, Ill.

Vice-presidents, Mrs. James A. Leeds, Louisville, Ky.; Rev. J. E. Rudisill, Columbus, O.; Mrs. S. F. Daily, Indianapolis, Ind.; Mrs. Jennie E. Griffith, Chicago, Ill.

Honorary Vice-presidents, Mrs. J. R. Hawes, Elgin, Ill.; Mrs. Charles Douglas, New York City.

Secretary and Treasurer, Miss E. Louise Savage, Rochester, N. Y.

CLASS OF 1888-"THE PLYMOUTH ROCK."

Motto: "Let us be seen by our deeds." Emblem: The Geranium.
President, Rev. A. E. Dunning, Boston, Mass.
Vice-presidents, Mr. S. C. Johnson, Racine, Wis.; Rev. D. L. Martin,
Jamestowa, N. Y.; Mrs. C. P. Collins, Tulsa, Okla.; Mrs. J. Watson Selvage,
Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mr. Arthur D. Horton, New Kensington, Pa.
Secretary, Miss Thankful M. Knight, Hancock, N. Y.
Treasurer and Class Trustee, Mr. Russell L. Hall, New Canaan, Conn.
Class Chronicler, Mrs. A. C. Teller, Pittsburg, Pa.

CLASS OF 1887-"THE PANSY."

Motto: "Neglect not the gift that is in thee." Emblem: The Pansy.
President, Wm. G. Lightfoote, Canandaigua, N. Y.
Vice-presidents, H. E. Barrett, Syracuse, N. Y.; Rev. G. R. Alden, Palo
Alto, Cal.; Mrs. A. H. Pierce, Knoxville, Tenn.; Mrs. Nosh Clark, Oil City,
Pa.; Mrs. Lillian Salmon, Kansas City, Mo.
Secretary, Miss A. M. Bentley. Meadville, Pa.
Treasurer, Miss Lettia Flocker, 408 Jackson street, Allegheny, Pa.
Trustee, Miss C. A. Teal, Chautauqua, N. Y.

CLASS OF 1886-"THE PROGRESSIVES."

Motto: "We study for light to bless with light." Emblem: The Aster. Honorary President, Mrs. Luella Knight, Chicago, Ill. President, Miss Sarah M. Soule, Dodge City, Kan. Vice-presidents, Dr. G. W. Gerwig, Allegheny, Pa.; Mrs. S. D. Chaney, Joliet, Ill.; Miss Effic Danforth, Norwalk, O.; Mrs. D. B. Crouch, Eric, Pa. Secretary, Mrs. Mary V. Rowley, Cleveland, O. Treasurer, Mrs. Amy S. Travis, 1008 E. Capitol street, Washington, D. C. Poet, Mrs. Emily Huntington Miller, Evanston, Ill. Trustee, Mrs. Minnie Peckham, 418 E. 6th street, Jamestown, N. Y.

CLASS OF 1885-"THE INVINCIBLES."

Motto: "Press on, reaching after those things which are before." Emblem:
The Heliotrope.

President, Mrs. Charles Hinckley, Delhi, N. Y. Honorary Member, Edward Everett Hale, Boston, Mass. Vice-president, Mrs. M. L. Ensign, Chautauqua, N. Y. Secretary and Treasurer, Mrs. T. J. Bentley, Springboro, Pa.

CLASS OF 1884-"THE IRREPRESSIBLES."

Motto: "Press forward; he conquers who wills." Emblem: The Goldenrod.
President, Rev. W. D. Bridge, Orange, N. J.
Vice-presidents, Mrs. J. D. Park, Cincinnati, O.; Mrs. R. B. Powers,
Cincinnati, O.; Mr. J. S. Shearer, Cincinnati, O.; Miss M. F. Hawley, Philadelphia; Mr. John Fairbanks, Seattle, Mass.; Mr. George Miner, Fredonia, N. Y.

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CLASS OF 1883-"THE VINCENTS."

Motto: "Step by step we gain the heights." Emblem: The Sweet Pes. President, Mrs. Thomas Alexander, Franklin, Pa. Vice-presidents, Miss Annie H. Gardner, Dorchester, Mass.; Mrs. Mary E. Cope, Salem, O. Secretary, Miss Ann C. Hitchcock, Burton, O. Treasurer, Miss M. J. Perrine, Chautauqua, N. Y.

CLASS OF 1882-"THE PIONEERS."

Motto: "From height to height." Emblem: The Hatchet.
President, Mrs. B. T. Vincent, Golden, Col.
Honorary Member, Miss Mary A. Lathbury, Cambridge, Mass.
Vice-presidents, Dr. J. L. Huribut, Bloomfield, N. J.; Mrs. Milton Bailey,
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Warren, Pa.

Secretary and Treasurer, Miss May E. Wightman, cor. Fisk street and

Secretary and Preasurer, miss may E. Wightman, Col. Fish Street and Howley avenue, Pittsburg, Pa.

Trustees, Mrs. Thomas Park, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Miss Ella Beaujean, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Mrs. Jno. G. Allen, Rochester, N. Y.; Miss L. Armstrong, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Rev. B. F. Wade, Cleveland, O.

GRADUATE ORDERS.

THE SOCIETY OF THE HALL IN THE GROVE.

Honorary President, Chancellor John H. Vincent, Indianapolis, Indiana. President, Dr. J. L. Hurlbut, Bloomfield, New Jersey. Vice-presidents, the presidents of the C. L. S. C. graduate classes. Secretary, Mr. Frank D. Frisbie, Newton Center, Mass. Board of Directors, Dr. George E. Vincent, Mr. Scott Brown, Mr. Robert A. Miller, Mr. Frank Chapin Bray, Miss Kate F. Kimball, Miss Martha Bortle, Miss S. D. Grant, Mrs. Helen L. Bullock, Mrs. E. S. Barnett, Miss H. M. Brown, Mr. Clifford B. LePage, and Mr. S. C. Johnson.

THE ORDER OF THE WHITE SEAL

President, J. D. Croissant, Washington, D. C. Vice-president, Mrs. Ella M. Warren, Minneapolis, Minn. Secretary, Mrs. E. M. Woodworth, Elgin, Ill.

THE LEAGUE OF THE ROUND TABLE.

President, Mrs. A. H. Chance, Vineland, N. J.
First Vice-president, Miss R. W. Brown, Brooklyn, N. Y.
Second Vice-president, Mrs. Hard, East Liverpool, O.
Executive Committee, Miss M. C. Hyde, Friendship, N. Y.; Miss C. E.
Whaley, Pomeroy, O.; Miss Mary W. Kimball, New York City.

GUILD OF THE SEVEN SEALS.

President, Mrs. R. B. Burrows, Andover, N. Y.
Vice-presidents, Mrs. N. B. E. Irwin, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Mrs. T. B.
Hoover, Oil City, Pa.
Secretary, Mrs. J. T. Rowley, 44 Collamer avenue, East Cleveland, O.
Assistant Secretary, Miss L. Armstrong, Chautauqua, N. Y.
Treasurer, Miss E. C. Dewey, New York City.

ALUMNI ASSOCIATION.

President, Captain John A. Travis, Washington, D. C. Vice-presidents, Rev. D. A. Cunningham, Wheeling, W. Va.; Miss Margaret A. Hackley, Georgetown, Ky.; Dr. G. W. Gerwig, Allegheny, Pa. Secretary and Treasurer, Mr. Russell L. Hall, New Canaan, Conn. Building Committee, Capt. J. A. Travis, Russell L. Hall, and John R.

Conner.

Esperanto News

THE FOURTH INTERNATIONAL ESPERANTO CONGRESS.

The Fourth International Esperanto Congress so successfully held in Dresden, Germany, last month, voted to hold two International Congresses in 1909; one in Chautauqua, N. Y., in the last week of August, and another in Barcelona, Spain, at a later date. This decision was greatly influenced by the strenuous efforts of the Esperanto Association of North America which at the First National Esperanto Convention held in Chautauqua during the third week of last July united all the Esperanto movements in the United States and Canada.

ESPERANTO PERIODICALS.

A striking proof of the progress of Esperanto is the constant appearance of new Esperanto periodicals. On July last there were fifty-five Esperanto gazettes, most of them monthlies, an advance of eleven on the number for December, 1907. Of the new ones, two are of general interest (one of them Espero, a 48-page magazine in Esperanto and Russian, goes out monthly to upward of 100,000 readers as a supplement to the well known Radical review Vjestnik Znania); two are for specialists: Europa Kristana Celado (the official organ of the United States Christian Endeavor Societies), and the Vocho de Kuracistoj (an international review for medical men); and the remaining are national propaganda monthlies for Catalonia, Mexico, Roumania, Chile, Ethonia, Italy, etc. An official police gazette in Budapest has opened in its pages a special column for Esperanto, and intends in due course to found an International Police Review.

ESPERANTO AND INTERNATIONAL SOCIETIES.

Several more non-Esperantist societies have adopted Esperanto for correspondence purposes: The Troyes section of the "Ligue des Droits de l'Homme," the Academy of Social Sciences in Burgos, and the central office of the Freemasons in Berne.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

The following recognitions of Esperanto by public institutions are worthy of note: In Bohemia, the Organizing Committee of the Jubilee Exhibition in Prague published an illustrated Esperanto circular and has officially invited the members of the Esperantist Congress at Dresden to Prague and the Exhibition after the Congress. The Postmaster-General has authorized the use of Esperanto in telegrams within the United Kingdom on an equal footing with modern European languages at the ordinary rate. At St. Etienne, France, the city voted a subvention of 300 frances to the local Esperanto Group. In Dresden, the city has shown practical interest and cooperation in the matter by making a donation of \$1,250.00 to the Congress expenses, and has decided to place the municipal tramways free of charge at the disposal of the delegates. The city also provided free of charge the steamer for the Congress excursion on the Elbe to Meissen and Saxon, Switzerland. In Japan, Count Hayashi, Minister of Foreign Affairs, has accepted the honorary presidency of the Japanese Esperanto Association, and in a public letter recommended his fellow-countrymen to take up Esperanto, which he calls the gospel of the world.

In the United States, the government recognized Esperanto by sending Major P. E. Straub, Medical Corps, United States Army,

as its official representative to the Congress. The Massachusetts Institute of Technology has introduced Esperanto into its curriculum on the same footing as the other modern languages. President Van Hise of the University of Wisconsin announced his determination to put Esperanto into the University in October and several other Universities are seriously considering the advisability of so doing. Esperanto is already a regular feature of the Chautaugua Summer School.

The above are but a few facts in regard to Esperanto progress. Facts cannot be gainsaid, and even the most uncompromising of skeptics must admit that there must be some practical worth, ave, and some ideal worth, too, in a language which thus has the power of kindling enthusiasm and enlisting the activities of men and women in ever increasing numbers throughout the world.

A Short Course in Esperanto II. Prefixes and Suffixes

Perhaps the most important characteristic of Esperanto is its elasticity. By the addition of a number of suffixes and prefixes to any root under certain fixed rules, words may be built up almost indefinitely. The student has already seen the grammatical terminations and the manner of adding them to the root. For example: legi—to read; leganto—a reader; etc. In a similar way, the joining of words is equally simple: Al—to; porti—to carry; alporti to bring, etc.

The suffixes and prefixes by means of which word-building becomes so easy, should be learned by heart, a few at a time.

PREFIXES.

Mal, which marks the contraries. Ex: bona-good; malbonaevil; estimi-to esteem, malestimi-to despise; supre-above, malsupre-below; amo-love, malamo-hatred, etc.

Bo, which marks relationship by marriage. Ex: patro-father, bopatro-father-in-law; filino-daughter, bofilino-daughter-in-law.

Dis, which marks disunion or separation. Ex: semi-to sow. dissemi—to disseminate; jeti—to throw, disjeti—to scatter; iri—to go, disiri—to separate, go apart.

Ek, which marks the beginning of an action, or that which is momentary. Ex: kanti—to sing, ekkanti—to begin to sing; krii—to cry, ekkrii—to cry out; vidi—to see, ekvidi—to preceive.

Ge, which marks two sexes united. Ex: patro-father, gepatroj-father and mother, parents; edzo-husband, geedzoj-married pair, husband and wife.

Re, which means again, anew, back. Ex: veni-to come, reveni-to come back, to return; iri-to go, reiri-to go back; vivigi-to cause to live, revivigi-to resuscitate.

SUFFIXES. Ad, which marks duration of the action or of the idea expressed by the root. Ex: pafo-a shot, pafado-a fusillade, continuous firing; parolo-speech, parolado-discourse; iri-to go, iradi

-to keep going; krii-to cry, kriadi-to continue crying.

Aj, which marks something possessing a certain quality or made of. Ex: malnova-old, malnovajo-an antique, something old; bela—beautiful, belaĵo—a beautiful thing; pentri—to paint, pentraĵo—a painting; bona—good, bonaĵo—something good, a good quality, a good point, malbonajo—a bad point, a defect.

An, which marks the member, the inhabitant, the partisan of. Ex: urbo—city, urbano—citizen; vilaĝo—village, vilaĝano—vil-

lager; Bostonano-Bostonian; kristano-Christian.

Ar, which marks an assemblage, a collection of. Ex: arboa tree, arbaro-forest; ŝtupo-step, ŝtuparo-staircase; vorto-word, vortaro-dictionary; libro-book, libraro-library, collection books; ŝipo-ship, ŝiparo-fleet; monto-mountain,montaro-range of mountains.

Ebl, that which is possible, that which can be. Ex: kredi—to believe, kredebla-credible, that can be believed; legi-to read, lege-

bla-legible; manĝi-to eat, manĝebla-eatable.

Ec, marks quality in the abstract. Ex: bela-beautiful, belecobeauty; juna—young, juneco—youth; amiko—friend, amikeco—friendship; viro—man, vireco—manliness, virility; granda—great, grandeco—greatness; malrica—poor, malriceco—poverty.

Eds, marks the consort of. Ex: lavistino—washerwoman, lav-

istinedzo-washerwoman's husband; doktoro-doctor, doktored-

zino-wife of a doctor; forgistedzino-a smith's wife.

Eg, marking the highest degree. Ex: varma-warm, varmegahot; granda—great, grandega—enormous, immense; pluvo—rain, pluvego—downpour; pafilo—gun, pafilego—cannon; bastono—stick, bastonego-club.

Ej, marks the place specially devoted to. Ex: kuiri-to cook, kuirejo-kitchen; preĝi-to pray, preĝejo-church; lerni-to learn, lernejo-school; malsanulo-sick person, malsanulejo-hospital.

Em, marks inclination, proneness to. Ex: kredi-to believe, kredema-credulous; kredemo-credulity; vengi-to avenge, vengema-vindictive; singardi-to take care of one self, singardemaprudent; singardemo—circumspection, prudence; koleri—to be angry, kolerema—irascible.

Er, marks the unit, one out of a collection. Ex: monomoney, monero—a coin; sablo—sand, sablero—a grain of sand;

hajlo—hail, hajelro—a hailstone.

Estr, means chief of. Ex: regno-kingdom, state; regnestrochief of the state, ruler; ŝipo-ship, ŝipestro-master of vessel;

lernejo-school, lernejestro-schoolmaster.

Et, diminutive. Ex: knabo-boy, knabeto-little boy; librobook, libreto—booklet; monto—mountain, monteto—hill; ridi—to laugh, rideti—to smile; dormi—to sleep, dormeti—to slumber. Id. denotes the descendant or child of. Ex: bovo-bull, bo-

vido-calf; koko-cock, kokido-chicken; Iraelido-Israelite.

Ig, to cause to be, to make. Ex: pura—clean, purigi—to cause to be clean, to cleanse; scii—to know, sciigi—to inform; bruli -to burn, to be on fire; bruligi-to cause to burn, to set on fire; devi—must, devigi—to necessitate, to compel; morti—to die, mortigi—to slay; fianco—fiancé, fiancigi—to betroth; pligranda—greater, pligrandigi—to enlarge; for—forth, away, off, forigi—to eject, to put forth, to cause to be at a distance; sen-without, senigi-to cause to be without, to deprive.

Iĝ, which means to become, to grow, to turn. Ex: maljuna—old, maljuniĝi—to grow old; pala—pale, paliĝi—to turn pale; edzo—husband, edziĝi—to marry; fluida—liquid, fluidiĝi—to liquify; al—to, aliĝi—to ally oneself to, to join.

In, which marks the female sex. Ex: patro—father, patrino—mother, frato—brother, fratino—sister; viro—man, virino—woman;

fraŭlo-bachelor, fraŭlino-miss; bovo-bull, bovino-cow.

II, which marks the instrument. Ex: haki—to hew, hakilo—axe; kombi—to comb, kombilo—a comb; kudri—to sew, kudrilo—needle; tondi—to shear, to clip, tondilo—scissors; levi—to lift, levilo—a lever.

Ind, means worthy of, that which deserves. Ex: kredo—belief, kredinda—worthy of belief; laŭdo—praise, laŭdinda—laudable; memoro—remembrance, memorinda—memorable; bedaŭro—regret, bedaŭrinda—regrettable, bedaŭrinde—unfortunately, in a manner to be regretted.

Ist, marks the profession. Ex: boto—boot, botisto—bootmaker; kuraci—to cure, kuracisto—physician; ŝteli—to steal, ŝtelisto—thief;

maro-sea, maristo-seaman.

Ing, marks the object in which the thing expressed by the root is ordinarily introduced or placed. Ex: kandelo—candle, kandelingo—candlestick; plumo—pen, plumingo—penholder; fingro—finger, fingeringo—thimble.

Uj, means that which bears, supports, carries or contains. Ex: cigaro—cigars, cigarujo—cigar-case; mono—money, monujo—purse; sukero—sugar, sukerujo—suggar-bowl; pomo—apple, pomujo—ap-

ple-tree; Turko-Turk, Turkujo-Turkey.

Ul, marks a being characterized by. Ex: juno—youth, junulo—a young man; malriculo—a poor man; timo—fear, timulo—a coward; avara—greedy, avarulo—a miser.

Translate the following story:

LA REGO KAJ LIA SERVISTO.

(El la kolekato da Tataraj rakontoj, prezentita de profesoro Katanov en la Arhivoj de la Universitato de Kaozan.)

Reĝo sidis je sia tablo kaj atendis la alporton de mangaĵoj Sed unu el la servistoj, kiu estis tre timema, faletis kaj kelkaj gutoj de la buljono ŝprucis sur la veston de la reĝo. La reĝo koleris kaj ordonis senkapigi la mallertulon. La malfeliĉulo pensis: "Mi estas filo de la morto, mia savo estas neebla!" kaj li prenis la buljonujon kaj elverŝis ĝian enhavon sur la reĝon. Tiu ĉi miregis kaj ekkriis: "Ho, junulo, ĉu vi estas posedata de frenezo? Kion vi faris?" La servisto diris: "Mia reĝo, mi ne freneziĝis, miaj pensoj estas en ordo. Mi kuraĝis fari tion ĉi por danki vin pro via boneco al mi. Nun la homoj ne diros pri vi: la reĝo ekzekutigis malfeliĉulon pro ia bagatelo; ili laŭdos vin kaj diros; la reĝo estas tute prava kaj neriproĉinda, ĉar la servisto montris teruregan kaj nepardonindan arogantecon." La reĝo profundiĝis en pensojn kaj diris: "Ho, junulo, malbone aganta kaj bone vin senkulpiganta, mi pardonas vian abomenan faron pro via lertega klarigo." Kaj la reĝo faris al li bonan donacon.

El la lingvo rusa trad. A. Kofman.

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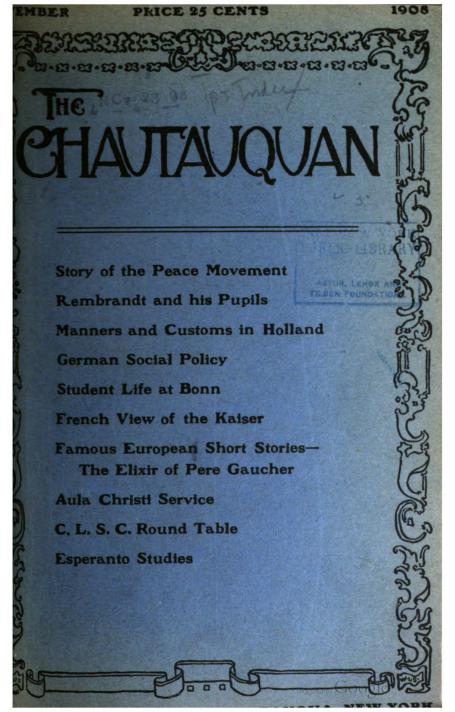
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NE of the issues of the national campaign and of several state campaigns has been "reform of the rules" governing legislative business. The vigorous attacks of the Methodist bishops and other temperance champions, and of progressive western Republicans generally, on Speaker Cannon have created surprise in wide circles, but they are of unquestioned significance. The charge is that Mr. Cannon has abused and perverted the rules of the national House and has usurped the power to control legislation—to say what bills shall be reported from the committees and what bills shall be "strangled" and buried. In the last Congress, for example, the Littlefield bill to regulate interstate liquor shipments and prevent evasion of state prohibition was smothered in committee, though an adverse report would have served every legitimate purpose of the opposition to the measure. A like fate overtook other bills that the people favored and certain special interests opposed.

There were sporadic and little outbreaks of revolt in the House against the tyranny of the Speaker, the rules committee and other "packed" committees. But party considerations and party discipline prevented any formidable rebellion of the dissatisfied Republicans. In the campaign, however, the question assumed such prominence that not a few Republican candidates for Congress openly repudiated the policy of the ruling clique, and especially of Mr.

Cannon, while some candidates suffered defeat on account of their support of the tactics of Mr. Cannon.

In state legislative campaigns, notably in Illinois, the same issue, the vindication of the right of majorities to vote on legislation, and of every member to have a fair and honest report on his measure, has figured quite prominently. That rules are necessary to discourage obstruction and filibustering no one denies; that the rules which give committees and the speaker power to smother bills obnoxious to them, to prevent even discussion of such bills on the floor, are either necessary, desirable or defensible is now vigorously denied.

The pretence that only "unconstitutional" bills are so treated is thin and insincere, for it is neither the duty nor the privliege of speakers and committees to pass on questions of constitutionality and "save the country" from alleged invalid legislation. They have the right to debate and vote, but not the right to obstruct. The veto power is lodged in the executive, the power to construe and pronounce upon statutes is lodged in the courts. There is no warrant for usurpation and for the suppression of the rights of majorities, minorities and individuals in the legislatures. Representative government must be restored, and committees must be shorn of the illegitimate power they have been exercising—generally in the interest of privilege and monopoly.



The Guaranteeing of Bank Deposits

A question which will survive the campaign of 1908 and be settled without reference to party politics, though it assumed a somewhat partisan aspect for a time, is that of guaranteeing the deposits in the national and state banks. Millions of people, especially in the West, are intensely interested in the idea, and Oklahoma has led the other states by passing a law for a guaranty fund to which all the banks in the state, except national banks, must contribute.

Mr. Bryan has advocated a national law requiring the national banks to establish and maintain such a fund, and his arguments have been discussed all over the country. Mr. Taft favors a voluntary guaranty system, but to a compulsory national system he is opposed on the ground that the conservative and careful bankers would have to pay for the mistakes and negligence, or even for the deliberate dishonesty and "wildcatting," of the speculative and reckless bankers. This has been the position of the Republican leaders generally, as well as of the overwhelming majority of the bankers in the East and middle West. Yet some prominent Republicans, including Gov. Hoch of Kansas, favor a national guaranty law, believing that its advantages would decisively outweigh its disadvantages. The Fowler currency bill that appeared too radical to the late Congress provided, among other novel features, for a system of deposit protection, though districts were established by it and each was to have its own fund.

It is not denied that a guaranty system would do away with "runs" and panics. It is not denied that if dishonesty could be prevented and all bankers were forced to do a legitimate business, the plan would be both feasible and desirable. But, it is argued, since some bankers are less fit or less intelligent than others, and since some states have heavier bank losses and more bank failures than others, it would not be just to impose upon all a uniform rate of taxation and a uniform set of restrictions and regulations. Connecticut, for example, has had no bank failure for some years, while New York, thanks to stock speculation and unsound loans, has had very bad bank failures. Would it be proper to make the Connecticut depositors pay the losses of the New York depositors?

Aside from the question of fairness, what, it is further asked, would be the effect of a compulsory and universal guaranty system? Would not bankers now reasonably prudent tend to become careless—knowing that they would not be exposed to "runs"—and would not in the long run the entire banking system suffer grave deterioration?

Mr. Bryan and the other advocates of the plan meet these objections by saying that the apprehended dishonesty would be prevented by more drastic legislation for the examination and regulation of banks, as well as by supplemental supervision on the part of the better bankers; that the incentives to sound banking would be strengthened by the mutualism and co-operation of the banks; that the criminal law would remain as a deterrent as regards misuse of depositors' funds; that the rate of payment to the general fund would be so small as to be negligible, and, finally, that all insurance is based on the principle of spreading and equalizing losses, though the prudent and conservative always and necessarily pay for the imprudent and the careless.

It is not necessary to summarize the whole case either pro or con the guaranty proposal. That further protection to depositors is essential scarcely needs demonstration; the question is really as to the best and least costly method of providing it. The question will be a vital and pressing one in several states, and it is probable that Oklahoma's lead will be followed by Kansas and Missouri. The Kansas Republicans have indorsed a voluntary system, and perhaps that alternative will be tried somewhere. The outcome of the agitation cannot be predicted with complete certainty, but increased protection is surely coming. Holders of bank notes are protected; depositors in savings banks enjoy a fair, though not a sufficient, measure of protection; depositors in commercial banks will demand better safeguards of their interests.



Defects in the Direct Nomination System

On the whole, the direct primary laws of the western states have, as we have had occasion to say, resulted in marked political improvement. The power of the spoils machines has been impaired; better men have been nominated and elected; known reactionaries have been defeated. The voters feel that they "rule" within the party and are not limited to the choice of evils that often results from nominations made by professional politicians and bosses and ratified by subservient conventions.

Doubtless the direct primary system will spread and become a permanent part of our political system. Gov. Hughes is advocating it in New York, in opposition to the machine politicians, and if the Empire State should adopt direct nominations other eastern states would undoubtedly follow its example.

But already the system has disclosed certain defects which will need to be remedied. These defects have led its foes to declare that it does more harm than good, that it has been tried and found wanting. One defect is that voters of one party vote at the primaries of another at the command of powerful politicians. This has happened in Illinois, in Missouri, in Nebraska, in Michigan and elsewhere. To defeat progressive candidates the spoilsmen of a party make "deals" with those of other parties and secure support of voters who have no intention of changing their affiliations but are willing to lend themselves to interparty "trades" and stratageins. And even where good candidates of one party are helped at the primaries by the voters of another—and this sometimes happens—it is felt that it is unjust that men who will not help elect should have a voice in nominating.

Another defect in the primary system is the great expense to which candidates are put. The lavish expenditure of money in campaigns is an evil, for it involves practical blackmail of candidates and corporations and the creation of political obligations that cannot honorably be paid without sacrificing the interests of the people. But if the expense is merely to be shifted from machines and organizations to individuals the wealthy candidates will have an undue advantage and the poor men will be discriminated against in the operation of the whole system. The individual candidate must circulate petitions, do a little advertising, pay hall rent and incur other legitimate expenses; and he must do this twice in many instances, before the primary and before the election.

The primary system must be simplified and safeguarded against fraud and waste. It is the friends of direct nomi-

nations who must attend to these improvements, for otherwise the spoilsmen and bosses will discredit and undermine the new system by emphasizing its faults and imperfections.



The Commodities Clause Cases

Another important law has been declared unconstitutional by the federal courts. The so-called commodities clause of the Hepburn railroad rate act—and that act is unquestionably the most notable achievement of the Roosevelt regime—has been pronounced void by the Circuit Court for the eastern district of Pennsylvania. The clause provides, in effect, that railroads or other common carriers that own or control mines or factories and manufacture or sell products shall not transport such products in interstate commerce. The effect of the clause, if legal, is to force the coalcarrying roads to sell their mines and other railroads to give up all production and manufacture of commodities save timber and its products, which are expressly exempted by the clause from the general prohibition.

The clause was enacted in response to a public demand for taking railroads out of other business than carrying. There was convincing evidence that any proprietary interest in other business inevitably led to favoritism, discrimination, unfair competition and like evils. That carriers should be limited to the business of transporting the goods of others is a principle that all accept. The present constitution of Pennsylvania fully recognizes it. But a number of railroads acquired and secured the control of mines prior to the adoption of any state or federal provision against such practices, and the question is whether legislation that directly or indirectly compels them to part with or cease operation of such properties is valid, even assuming that a law regarding future relations and transactions of this character is constitutional.

The federal court above named, with one judge dissenting, held that the commodity section of the rate act, in so far at least as it affects property acquired prior to its adoption,

is invalid, being an invasion of the rights of the states and amounting to the taking of private property without due process of law. Judge Gray said in his opinion:

Ample as is the scope of legislative power granted by the language of the commerce clause, and far as the Supreme Court has undoubtedly gone in sustaining the validity of legislation under it, we think it may be safely said that no assertion of this power hitherto, by Congress, has been so far-reaching or affected in so serious a degree the individual liberty and property rights enjoyed under the constitution and laws of a state as the enactment we are here considering. It is not to be denied that the right to carry in interstate commerce coal which they own in whole or in part, or which is mined or produced by them under their authority, or by coal companies in which they are stockholders was, until the passage of the act in question, a lawful right of these defendants; that it was a common right of property, neither denied nor disputed by the common or statute law of Pennsylvania; that it was a most important property right, the enjoyment and exercise of which was neither criminal nor immoral, and subject only to any restraints imposed upon its possessors by the common or statute law of the state, or by the then existing statutes of the United States, so far as they were engaged in interstate commerce. If in any manner and to any extent whatever they have actually violated the latter, surely they could be restrained or otherwise made amenable to the legal penalties in such behalf without crippling or destroying a business in which they are profitably and usefully engaged.

There are able lawyers who believe that the Supreme Court will reverse this decision. They base their belief on the settled interpretation of the commerce clause of the Constitution. That clause gives Congress plenary and exclusive power over interstate commerce. The states cannot regulate such commerce, and have indeed nothing to do with it. Where goods have to be shipped from one state into another, or into a foreign country, the matter of regulating such shipments is entirely under the control of Congress. By virtue of this power the transmission of lottery tickets has been forbidden, and that irrespective of whether the states legalize lotteries, as they used to do, or prohibit them. It has been argued in Congress and by the Department of Justice that if the national legislature saw fit to do so it could even forbid the carrying of trust-made goods from one state to another. If this be true, and if the precedents sustain this view, why cannot Congress declare that carriers which operate mines or factories shall not transport the products of these into other states? Such a law

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does not invade the sphere of the states, for it concerns interstate shipments only.

It may be, however, that the congressional power to regulate and prescribe the conditions of interstate commerce is subject to limitations not heretofore recognized. The power to regulate may not include the power to prohibit transactions that in themselves are innocent. The Supreme Court will be called upon to deal with these vital questions and interpret afresh the commerce clause of the constitution.



Doubts and Fears as to Turkey

The amazing and "miraculous" character of the Turkish revolution is still a subject of general discussion in Europe and America. The developments so far continue, at least on the surface, to be remarkably favorable. The Young Turks and the reformers are supreme, and their representatives control the government in the capital and in the provincial centers, not excepting Macedonia. Great changes are being planned in the army and navy, in the finances of the empire, in taxation, in education, in administration. The program of reform is most ambitious and intelligent. Moreover, peace and order have been preserved. The new regime has been accepted, there are no serious signs of reaction and discontent, as in Russia, for example. All the testimony which comes from impartial observers is singularly good-though there is an undertone of doubt and skepticism. For instance, a correspondent of The Outlook, writing from Beyrout, gives this picture of the situation in Syria:

The local situation is extraordinary. "Liberty, equality and fraternity" are on every one's lips, but the stress seems to be on "fraternity." The promulgation of the Constitution, the granting of liberty to the press and to the person, have resulted for the moment, not in license of speech and action, but in a new sense of brother-hood among the warring elements of the people. * * * Monster meetings are still held almost every night, each night in a different section of Beyrout, at which sentiments of mutual regard are interchanged between Moslem and Christian, accompanied by denunciation of evil deeds and doers. Both meetings and expression of such sentiments are things quite new. One district of the city has long been the storm

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center of the ancient vendetta between the rival religions. Here took place the series of murders, barely five years ago, which might have resulted in a serious massacre had it not been for the presence of two American men-of-war sent by President Roose-velt. As it was, thousands of Christians fled from the city, which did not resume its normal business life for weeks. A few days after the Constitution was promulgated the Moslem roughs marched with banners to this district, embraced their Christian enemies, invited them to a feast in the Square near the Barracks, and, the invitation being accepted, served them with their own hands. Later the compliment was returned. These are but examples of many similar feasts. At one meeting soldiers and Armenians exchanged the noblest sentiments. Such high pressure of fervor cannot last—the day's bulletins sound like chapters from Isaiah—but we may hope that there may be a settling down to a tolerant modus vivendi instead of a reaction into something worse than the past has shown.

The grounds for skepticism are many. The revolution was distinctly of a military origin and character, and its very completeness is terrifying. Will the army seek to control parliament as it controls the administration? And will it be selfish and narrow in its aim? The old regime was harsh and bad for officers and soldiers, and that was why it was so easily overthrown. But if the army should be unreasonable in its demands there will be friction and discord. and the constitution may prove a paper of little moment. In the second place, the revolutionary societies are secret and small bodies, and even today the identity of the leaders of the movement is unknown. In the third place, the masses of the people seem to be rather indifferent at bottom to the freedom that has been gained for them. Or, rather, they fail to appreciate it and may not defend it in the event of an assault and counter-revolution. Finally, the racial composition of the Turkish population is such that under genuine constitutionalism other races, Christian chiefly, would have greater power and influence than the Turks themselves. It is asked whether it is reasonable to expect the latter to yield supremacy to the other races. If they will not yield, the parliament will not be representative, and racial conflicts will spring up again.

The world, however, is hoping for the best, and meantime the events already witnessed possess the greatest significance as further evidence of a new spirit in the East and of a capacity for progress and emulation of the West. The completion and opening of a railroad from Damascus to Medina, a distance of six hundred miles, and the projected extension of the line to Mecca, also attest Turkish growth and energy. The opening of Arabia to civilization and the taming of the fanatical and proud tribes will tend to unify Turkey and strengthen it both in a military and economic way.

Complications in Morocco and European Peace

A contributor to the series of articles on "International War or Peace?" now appearing in this magazine, has set forth the essential facts of the Moroccan situation in its relation to "world politics" and the present "equilibrium of Europe," which is generally regarded as comparatively stable. Only a few weeks ago, however, a sudden act on the part of the German government introduced a new complication and revived the talk, if not the actual danger, of war in Europe over the Moorish "inheritance."

As the readers are aware, the campaign of French and Spanish armies for the pacification of the disturbed ports and surrounding territory in Morocco has been conducted under the Algeciras treaty and in behalf of all the powers that participated in the Algeciras congress. The sole object of the campaign has been to suppress anti-foreign outbreaks and secure peace and order in the kingdom. Unfortunately another campaign was for many months carried on in the interior, a campaign for the overthrow of the "sultan of record," Abdul Aziz, with whom the powers had dealt and who had been the legitimate and somewhat progressive ruler of Morocco, by his half-brother, Mulai Hafid, a claimant to the throne. France and Spain refrained from penetrating the interior or from "taking sides" in that war, although the pretender was threatening to proclaim a "holy war" against Christians and pledging himself to the more fanatical tribesmen to repudiate the concessions that had been made by the "weak ruler" to the powers of Europe. Google

Non-interference on the part of Europe may have been the wisest policy, but has not been a policy free from dangers and difficulties. At first the pretender seemed doomed to defeat, and after some reverses the powers treated him as a mere disturber. Delegates he sent to the various capitals, to ask for a hearing, were denied official recognition. But the fortunes of war finally began to favor him, and tribe after tribe enlisted under his banner. Finally he triumphed and drove the "sultan of record" out of the capital and into virtual isolation. He was proclaimed sultan, and the question of his recognition by the powers was revived. That recognition was inevitable was clear to all, but on what terms and conditions? France insisted that he must pledge himself to respect and abide by the Algeciras treaty and other conventions limiting the power of Morocco and placing it under European control. Germany, to assert its independence, unexpectedly issued a note urging immediate recognition and sent its minister to the court of the successful pretender. This action has been variously construed and severely criticised in British, Belgian and other organs of opinion. It seemed to involve a repudiation of the concert of the powers and the Algeciras treaty. It seemed to threaten a clash with France. It indicated a desire to "fish in troubled waters" and gain the good will of the new sultan for Germany. At this writing the incident is not regarded as closed, though an understanding between France and Germany is generally expected. Possibly the moral effect of the episode in Morocco is all that Germany intended to "realize" by her move. The alarm it caused, however, illustrates the essential instability of the world's peace even today.



The Aeroplane and the Conquest of the Air

Is human invention to take another great stride and register another revolutionary change in transportation and locomotion? Is the old problem of "flying machines" at last to be solved?

A few weeks ago the layman, the naval and army expert and even the cautious scientist were disposed to answer these questions with great confidence—and affirmatively. The wonderful records of Count Zeppelin of Germany, of Farnam, the French-Scotch air navigator, of Delagrange, the Frenchman, and especially of the Wright Brothers of this country, seemed to justify such confidence. "The conquest of the air" was the theme of enthusiastic editorials and interviews galore, and many were discussing the military aspects and results of such conquest, as well as the commercial possibilities of "aviation." German, French, Belgian and other companies were announced for the construction and use of airships in ordinary travel from Paris to Berlin or London. Another year or two, it was said, and airships will be so perfected that passengers will prefer them to ships and trains and automobiles.

But certain tragic accidents—the sudden destruction of the splendid Zeppelin dirigible balloon after a record-breaking journey over the lakes and mountains; the disaster of the Wright aeroplane at Fort Myer, with the death of Lieut. Selfridge, the severe injuries to the inventor and the wrecking of the machine in which it resulted, and a number of minor failures and difficulties—have induced soberer and more moderate views of the "aerial situation."

The new records and achievements are wonderful indeed, and they not only show how much progress there has been in aeronautics in the last year or so but how much further progress we may reasonably expect in the near future.

The "record" for the dirigible balloon is thirteen hours in the air and a flight from Berlin to Magdeburg and back, with a two-hours' stop in the air. The aeroplane record is over ninety minutes in the air and the covering of sixty-one miles. It has been demonstrated that heavier-than-air machines can be kept afloat and directed with ease and facility high above the ground. In principle the flight problem has thus been solved, but from any practical point of view the solution is still far off. The dirigible balloon is subject to too many accidents. The aeroplane, which has greater

possibilities according to inventors and men of science, is still nothing more than a toy or promise. It requires high rates of speed, and speed multiplies the chances of disaster and loss of life. Neither war nor commerce can do much with an invention that is so uncertain and so dangerous, and which requires rare skill, rare courage and rare presence of mind. There are thus many difficulties yet to be overcome, especially as regards questions of carrying capacity of airships, regulation of speed, prevention of fatal accidents, etc. Much of the current talk respecting "war in the air" and immediate provision for aerial fleets for defence and offence is highly fanciful and speculative. But the interest in the subject is as legitimate as it is wide. We seem to be on the eve of tremendous developments in the theory and practice of aeronautics.

Note and Comment

INTERNATIONAL CONGRESSES.

The "parliament of man and federation of the world" seems not so remote as bristling armaments would indicate when the many international congresses which are held annually are duly considered. Not only are international peace congresses an admitted factor in the friendship of nations but the gatherings of scientists, scholars, commercial bodies and the like are also significant and influential. Two such important congresses were held in September in addition to the gathering to celebrate the dedication of the bureau of Central American Republics which we note elsewhere. The first congress of the International White Cross Association opened at Geneva, Switzerland, on September 8. This congress was the result of an effort to group the work of the international societies engaged in fighting tuberculosis, cancer and other epidemic diseases; also social scourges, such as alcoholism and the drug habit, as well as food adulteration.

On September 22 the fourth international fisheries congress met at Washington. Many foreign countries and practically every state and territory in the Union were represented.



THE PEACE MOVEMENT.

The Congress of Universal Peace held its seventeenth session in London this year. Its principal resolutions were to the effect that order should be reëstablished in Morocco as soon as possible; that in nations of mixed nationality the language of

the conquered nation shall be granted the greatest possible equality with that of the conquering nation; arbitration must be made obligatory, that a peace agitation be carried on among academic students, as has already been done by "Corda Fratres"; that the governments follow the lead of Great Britain and provide funds for international hospitality; that private property shall not be captured at sea; that the working people of the nations shall be invited to join the peace movement, and finally that all money contributions will be thankfully received at the Berne Peace Bureau, Berne, Switzerland.

In September the Interparliamentary Union met in Berlin. The Union was founded by the late William Randall Cremer, in 1888, and has had nineteen meetings. It consists of 2,500 members of the 15,000 men who sit in the national parliaments of the world. The American delegates were headed by Hon. Richard Bartholdt, of Missouri, who was later elected vice-president of the Union. Chancellor Von Bülow opened the session with a remarkable speech, which gave the lie to the rumors current in the English press of late that Germany was preparing for war. A telegram was received from the Kaiser, stating that he hoped the work of the Union would bear fruit. Mr. Bartholdt introduced two resolutions, one having to do with the right of each nation to perpetual possession of its undisputed territory and sovereignty therein; the other with the selection of an international arbitration court, and the best form of a national arbitration treaty. Representative Bartholdt's resolutions were referred to a committee, who will report back at a future meeting of the Union.

England has announced that she will hereafter contribute annually \$1,500 to the Interparliamentary Union, and it is expected that all the other national groups will request their governments to do the same. Minister Hill gave a luncheon to the American group; a letter from Mr. Carnegie to Mr. Bartholdt was read, suggesting that if the Kaiser would form an alliance with England and the United States, they could stop war by force; and then the Union adjourned to meet next year in Quebec. On the same day an imposing German workingmen's peace demonstration was held in Berlin. Some 20,000 German workingmen were assembled to welcome a delegation of English workingmen, and great enthusiasm was expressed on both sides when the English delegates presented an address requesting the Germans to co-operate with them in furthering the cause of arbitration.

Germany and Italy have jointly requested Holland to call a second conference of the Powers who were represented at the last Hague Conference to take part in another conference at The Hague probably in 1909, to discuss international exchange.

—From the Independent.



GROWING POWER OF EMPEROR OF GERMANY.

The unification of Germany which has been the triumph of German statesmanship during the last half century is not as complete as it may ultimately become. In accordance with the agreements of succession, failure in the male line of descent in the royal and ducal houses now reigning in the states constituting the German Empire, results in some instances in the lands of those houses coming directly into the possession of Emperor William, as King of Prussia. In a number of the important states male heirs are but sparsely represented and a change of the succession is, therefore, probable in the not remote future. Eleven of the twenty-two dynasties which rule the states forming the German Empire are threatened with extinction, among them being: Mecklenburg-Strelitz, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Baden, Hesse, Oldenburg, Saxe-Altenburg, and Saxe-Weimar.



PEACE AND HARMONY IN CENTRAL AMERICA.

On September 15, President Cabrera, of Guatemala, formally opened the International Bureau of Central American Republics, an institution which should do much to promote international peace and welfare among the Latin American countries.

The new bureau was established by a convention signed by the representatives of the five republics at the Central American Peace Conference, held at Washington, last winter. I to object is the development of the interests common to Central America. President Estrada Cabrera spoke of the necessity of the bureau, his desire for peace in Central America and expressed his firm determination to establish the obligations under which the contracting governments placed themselves to the United States and Mexico, which are regarded as ample assurance that the terms of the convention will be carried out. The chief executive's absolute neutrality in the last revolution in Honduras, and his prompt recognition of the court of justice at Cartago, Costa Rica, another outgrowth of the peace conference, are pointed out as abundant proof of his attitude.

The International Bureau of Central American Republics will occupy a relationship to the latter countries similar to that which the International Bureau of American Republics now bears to those of the Latin-American continent. Special effort will be made to reorganize peacefully the states of Central America and to impress on public education an essentially Central American character, in a uniform sense, making it as broad, practical and complete as possible, in accordance with modern tendencies. The development of the commerce of the signatories to the convention to make it more active and profitable and to promote agricultural industries is one of the things which the new bureau will strive to accomplish. One of the important objects will be to make uniform the civil, commercial and criminal legislation of the five republics, recognizing as fundamental principles the inviolability of life, respect for property and the sacredness of personal rights.

Uniformity in the system of custom houses, in the monetary system, in such a manner as to obtain a fixed rate of exchange, and general sanitation is also to be arranged.

The bureau will be a medium of intelligence among the signatories, and will issue to the respective countries all reports and information necessary for the development of the relations and interests intrusted to it. While independent of the international bureau at Washington, the one established in Guatemala City will maintain intercourse with the latter. The expenses for the maintenance of the new institution will be paid in equal parts by the countries constituting it.



The Story of the Peace Movement*

By Benjamin F. Trueblood, LL. D.

[7ITHIN a few years an enormous amount of interest in the origin and history of the international peace movement has appeared. This interest has been awakened by the recent extraordinary development of the movement on its practical side. No other philanthropic movement, either national or international, has made anything like as much gain in the last two decades as that for world peace. In proof of this statement one need only cite the multiplication of Peace Societies, now about five hundred in number, the organization and growth of the Interparliamentary Union the International Peace Congresses held since 1880, the work of the Mohonk Arbitration Conferences, the conclusion of more than three-score arbitration treaties within the last five years, the National Arbitration and Peace Conferences and Congresses recently held, the Pan-American Congresses, the two Hague Conferences, the setting up of the Permanent Tribunal of Arbitration, and the laying of the bases, by the Second Hague Conference, of a regular World Congress or Parliament and of an International Court of Arbitral Justice or Supreme Court of the World. All these great attainments are felt not to be sudden happenings, and thoughtful men

^{*}The first article of this series, "The European Equilibrium and the Peace of the World," by Victor S. Yarros, appeared in the September Chautauquan; the second article, by the same author, "Danger Points About the Globe," in the October number.

and women everywhere are beginning to inquire into their sources and history.

The story of the peace movement, which has now attained such large proportions, has been making itself for about one hundred years. Only a sketch of its most salient features can be put into the limits of a single magazine article.

The movement began in the early part of the last century as a reaction against the bloody and disastrous campaigns which had been desolating Europe for nearly a quarter of a century. This reaction would not, of course, have taken place, had it not been for the general growth of civilization and the increasing hold which reason and humane sentiment were taking upon the peoples of the more advanced nations. For campaigns just as terrible and devastating had taged in Europe almost incessantly for centuries without awakening any very serious attempt to counteract the spirit out of which they sprang. It is true that Henry the Fourth, Hugo Grotius, William Penn, the Abbe de St. Pierre, Bentham, Rousseau, and Kant had, during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, presented the idea of universal peace and of the means by which it should be attained, but the proposals of these great publicists for the most part were couched in idealistic forms and there was little hint of any practical effort to realize them. It is fairly certain that these men had little expectation of any immediate realization of their idealistic schemes. They felt, doubtless, that centuries still stretched before them before any realization of their ideals could be expected.

Soon after the opening of the nineteenth century, however, men in the United States, in England, and in France, and to a more limited extent also in other countries, began to feel that the time had come when practical steps should be taken for arresting and limiting war and for its possible ultimate extinction. As early as 1809 David L. Dodge, a Christian merchant of New York City, published a pamphlet entitled, "The Redeemer's Kingdom not of this World," in which he set forth the inconsistency of war, as then waged

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throughout the world, with the principles of the Christian system. This was really the beginning of the modern movement. In Great Britain about the same time a similar feeling sprang up, growing out of the impression left by what Lord Russell called "the most bloody hostilities that ever mangled the face of Europe," that the hour had come when something should be done to redeem humanity from the blighting curse of war. In 1814, Mr. William Allen, a philanthropic citizen of London, belonging to the Society of Friends, who had for some years been pondering over the subject, called together some of his friends to consider the expediency of organizing a Peace Society. So great was the interest shown at this meeting that a committee was formed to draw up a plan of action. The campaign which ended in Waterloo the next year prevented, however, the consummation of the plan, and nothing was done at the time.

In the meantime Dr. Noah Worcester published on Christmas Day in 1814 in Boston his famous pamphlet, "A Solemn Review of the Custom of War." This "Solemn Review" came like a trumpet to the churches on both sides of the Atlantic. Several editions of it were published in this country and likewise in England, and it made a great impression. In New York, David L. Dodge had written another pamphlet entitled, "War Inconsistent with the Religion of Jesus Christ," and in August, 1815, there was organized in his parlor the first Peace Society that ever existed. The same year, on the second of December, the Ohio Peace Society was formed, and on the twenty-sixth of December, the Massachusetts Peace Society. Among the signers of the constitution of the Massachusetts Society, which soon took the lead in the new movement, were the Governor and Lieutenant Governor of the State, Dr. William E. Channing, Dr. Noah Worcester and several professors of Harvard College, including the president, Dr. Kirkland.

The next year, 1816, Mr. Allen called together in London the committee which had been appointed two years before, but which had done little during the preceding twelve months, and it was decided immediately to organize a

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society. The organization was completed on the fourteenth of June, 1816, four days before the first anniversary of Water-loo, and the new organization was christened "The Society for the Promotion of Universal and Permanent Peace." This society, now called simply the Peace Society, has continued its labors ever since, and is today one of the foremost agencies in the advancement of the cause.

On both sides of the water the movement thus started developed with great rapidity. In the United Kingdom branch societies were organized in Scotland, Ireland, Wales, the Channel Islands, and even in Canada, as well as in England. In the United States new societies sprang into existence all up and down the Atlantic coast. In France the Society of Christian Morals was organized in 1821 on the suggestion of the president of the New York Peace Society.

The most distinguished man connected with the peace movement in this its earliest stage was William Ladd, whose widely extended, unremitting and efficient labors for a quarter of a century justly won him the title of "The American Apostle of Peace." Mr. Ladd was a graduate of Harvard University and had become wealthy as a sea-captain. At Minot, Maine, he had first associated himself with the peace cause, and in the years which followed he devoted his whole strength and fortune to the work. In 1828 when Peace Societies throughout the East had become numerous, he succeeded in bringing them together in a national association and thus was organized on the eighth of May that year, in New York City, the American Peace Society. This Society has continued its work ever since, first in New York, then in Hartford, and from 1837 on in Boston, from which city it is at the present time carrying on more vigorous and widely extended labors than at any previous period in its history. This first great wave of interest in peace continued in full vigor until the years just preceding the breaking out of the Civil War. By 1835 every county in Connecticut had a Peace Society, and there were many in other States. The work of the British Peace Society extended in like manner to all parts of the United Kingdom. Many of the leading

men of our country of that period, besides those already mentioned, were active promoters of the movement, among them John G. Whittier, William Lloyd Garrison, Adin Ballou, Charles Sumner, Elihu Burritt, Judge William Jay, Hon. Thomas S. Grimke, Professor Thomas C. Upham, Professor Amasa Walker, and others.

In this early stage of the movement the work of the Peace Societies, which had all been organized by Christian men, was carried on chiefly on the basis of the anti-Christian nature of war and its inconsistency with the principles of ethics and humanity, though, of course, the religious argument was supported by economic and other considerations.

The great war period of the nineteenth century, which extended from about the middle of the century to the close of the Franco-Prussian War in 1871, interfered greatly with the further development of peace thought and work, and in many places totally suppressed the movement. In this country most of the local Peace Societies, many of which had continued to do valuable work even after the formation of the national organization, disappeared entirely and only the American Peace Society remained, and its labors were made extremely difficult by the influences of the spirit which attended and followed the Civil War.

Soon after the close of the Civil War, beginning with the organization of the Universal Peace Union, in Philadelphia, the Peace Association of Friends in America, and the International Arbitration and Peace Association and the Workingmen's Arbitration League in England, the movement began again to reëstablish itself. The old societies took on fresh life. New societies began to be formed in France, Italy and other European countries, chiefly through the efforts of the late Hodgson Pratt of London, one of the wisest and most effective workers which the cause has ever produced. From being carried on largely on religious grounds, the movement began at that time to strengthen itself by the addition of the judicial and economic reasons for the abolition of war.

It is impossible to give in detail here the history of the multiplication of the Peace Societies and of their varied labors. At the present time there are more than one hundred general societies, with about four hundred branches, forming a network of activities in practically all of the civilized countries. Only recently a society has been formed in Buenos Ayres by Senora de Costa, now famous all over the world for her labors in securing the erection of the great peace monument, "The Christ of the Andes," on the border between the Argentine Republic and Chile, in consecration of the treaties of arbitration and disarmament between the two countries. The movement has extended itself to Australia, and to Japan, where a Japan Peace Society has been organized with more than thirty of the leading missionaries of the Empire and over two hundred eminent Japanese associated together in it for peace work in that wonderful country. Even the Minister of Foreign Affairs, Baron Hayashi, has connected himself with the society and manifested the sincerest sympathy with its work and purposes.

As a result of the work of the Peace Societies and the growth of interest in the cause, the International Peace Congress has now been meeting nearly every year since 1889. An early series of Peace Congresses was held from 1843 to 1851. The first steps toward holding a Peace Congress were taken in Boston by members of the American Peace Society, at the suggestion of the distinguished English philanthropist, Joseph Sturge, in 1841. The first Congress was held in Exeter Hall, London, in 1843, a delegation of twenty-three attending it from this country. Subsequent Congresses were attended by large delegations from different countries, and were, if possible, more impressive than those of the recent series have been. The reason for their great success was the freshness and enthusiasm of the movement in its early stages, and the participation in them of some of the most distinguished men of half a century ago: such men, for example, as Richard Cobden, Victor Hugo, Sir David Brewster, Athanase Coquerel, Emile de Laveleye, John Bright, Henry Richard, Elihu Burritt, and others.

The modern series of Peace Congresses began in 1889 at Paris at the time of the Exposition. The sixteen subsequent Congresses have been held in London, Rome, Berne, Chicago, Antwerp, Budapest, Hamburg, Glasgow, Monaco, Rouen, Boston, Lucerne, Milan, Munich, and London, where the Seventeenth International Peace Congress, just held, under the presidency of Lord Courtney, has been one of the greatest peace demonstrations ever made. These Congresses have been presided over by such eminent persons as David Dudley Field, Signor Bonghi, of the Italian Parliament, Louis Ruchonnet, twice President of the Swiss Republic, Senator Houzeau de Lehaie of Belgium, Dr. Adolph Richter of Germany, Dr. Charles Richet of the Medical Faculty of Paris, Dr. Robert Spence Watson, the most distinguished labor arbitrator in England, Hon. Robert Treat Paine of Boston, etc. They have been welcomed in the great cities where they have met by the municipal authorities and in a number of recent cases by the national governments themselves. The President of the French Republic was Honorary President of the Paris Congress of 1900. The Boston Congress in 1904 was opened, as is well known, by a notable address by the late John Hay, Secretary of State, who went to the Congress with the hearty approval of the President. The Congress at Milan in 1906 was welcomed to Italy, in the name of the King and the Government, by the Under-Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs. The recent London Congress was given a banquet by the British Government, at which the Prime Minister was the chief speaker, a part of the newly created Hospitality Fund being used in this way; and a deputation from the Congress, on which were representatives from all the countries participating, was given a most cordial reception by King Edward and the Queen.

It will thus be seen that the peace movement has gradually won its way to the governments themselves and now receives the hearty support of the municipal and national authorities wherever international peace gatherings are held.

In 1891 the first steps were taken at the Peace Congress in Rome towards the establishment of an International Peace

Bureau, the organization of which was completed the next year and its headquarters placed at Berne, Switzerland. This Bureau, under the wise and able direction of the late M. Elie Ducommun, secretary of a great Swiss railway company, has proved to be a most useful medium of intercommunication between the Peace Societies in different nations, and an efficient agent in executing, with the governments and otherwise, the resolutions adopted annually at the Peace Congresses. The Bureau is managed by a Commission now numbering thirty-five members, appointed from the most prominent peace workers in different countries. At least four of the smaller European Governments have for several years made an official annual contribution toward the expenses of the Bureau, in recognition of its most valuable services in promoting international friendship.

Among the most efficient of the peace organizations is the Interparliamentary Union, founded in 1889 by William Randal Cremer, M. P., with the aid of Frederic Passy, for the promotion, in the parliaments of the different countries, of the cause of international good-will and the settlement of international controversies by arbitration and other pacific means. Beginning with a few members of the English and French Parliaments, who had first met at Paris in 1888 to discuss the question of an arbitration treaty between Great Britain and France, the Union has grown now to a membership of about 2,500. The groups of this Union in some of the parliaments contain a majority of the members of the Lower House and, in two or three cases, of the Senate likewise. The United States group, of which the Hon. Richard Bartholdt of Missouri is President, numbers at the present time about two hundred Representatives and Senators. The meetings of this Union in the different countries are among the most notable international events of our time. The St. Louis Conference in 1904 will always be memorable in the history of the International Peace Movement. The delegates came at the invitation and as the guests of our government and were entertained at its expense, Congress having appropriated fifty thousand dollars for this purpose, the first time

in the history of the world that so much money was ever appropriated by any Government for the pure purpose of peace-making. It was on the suggestion of this Conference also, in an interview of its delegates with him, that President Roosevelt issued the first call for the Second Hague Conference.

The London meeting of the Union, two years later, which is equally famous for its conclusions, was welcomed to Westminster Hall by the British Prime Minister himself, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, in a notable speech. This Conference more than any other one influence gave direction to the program of the Second Hague Conference. The Conference of the Union which has just closed its sessions in Berlin, was welcomed to the German capital, in the name of the Emperor and the government by Prince von Buelow, the Imperial Chancellor, and was given a reception in the Schloss by the Crown Prince on behalf of the Emperor.

The groups of this distinguished body of statesmen, the most important unofficial organization of public men in the world, act as powerful bulwarks in the different parliaments of the world against war panics and war legislation, and it is safe to say that it will be very difficult hereafter for any two nations whose legislators are united in this Union and working together for the common ends of international justice and friendly relations to become embroiled in hostilities.

It is frequently supposed that the work of the Peace Societies and the Peace Congresses has been wholly theoretical and sentimental, and not practical. It is true that in the early decades of their work these societies, from the necessities of the case, had to expose the irrationality, the cruelty and the horrors of the scourge of war, and to discuss the subject of peace from the idealistic point of view. This was done by Channing, Worcester, Ladd, Burritt, Dodge, Garrison, Sumner, Jay, by Richard Cobden, John Bright, Henry Richard, and others, with a thoroughness which has left nothing to say in that direction since. But these men did not stop here. They were not merely idealists and visionaries. From the very beginning they proposed judicial substitutes for war, and they argued for the adoption of these with the same clear-

"Fatherland." From the Painting by Georges Bertrand.

"The Last Cannon." From the Painting by A. J. Wiertz, 1855, Brussels.

ness and thoroughness with which they had set forth the evils, injustices and wickedness of the system which they had undertaken to undermine and overthrow. Anyone who will take the pains to look up and read the petitions and memorials sent to the State Legislatures and to our National Congress by the Massachusetts and other Peace Societies as early as 1816 and 1817, and those of the American Peace Society in the years following its organization in 1828, will find that every argument for arbitration as a settled method of dealing with international disputes and for an International Congress and High Court of Nations, on which so much stress has recently been laid, was used in those early papers.

The group of essays on a Congress of Nations, by William Ladd and others, written in response to an offer of a prize of one thousand dollars made by the American Peace Society, and published in 1840, left practically nothing to be said in favor of the very institutions which the Hague Conferences are now creating. A distinguished authority on International Law has recently said that it would hardly be too much to call William Ladd, whose Essay on "A Congress and Court of Nations" is famous in the history of the literature of peace, "The Father of the Hague Conferences," so nearly did the work of the Second Hague Conference follow the lines laid down by Ladd in its work for a Permanent International Court of Arbitral Justice, for periodic meetings of the Hague Conference, and for a general treaty of obligatory arbitration. From their very beginning the Peace Congresses urged arbitration as the rational method of settling international controversies. As the movement progressed, they were the first to urge that the temporary tribunals set up to dispose of disputes as they arose should be superseded by a permanent international tribunal, whose decisions would become authoritative and thus promote the development and codification of international law, and whose systematic work would necessarily in time secure the confidence of the various governments and thus make easy the appeal to arbitral justice instead of to the sword.

Very soon after its organization the Interparliamentary Union, as well as the Peace Congresses, began to direct its chief efforts toward the establishment of a Permanent International Tribunal of Arbitration. At the meeting of the Conference in Brussels in 1895 a committee of eminent members of the Union was appointed to draft a plan for the organization of such a tribunal. Similar plans had been drawn before by individuals and by committees, as will be seen by consulting Dr. W. E. Darby's volume, entitled "International Tribunals," in which the Secretary of the London Peace Society brings together a list of all the schemes of this kind which had been devised up to the time of the First Hague Conference. One of the most important of these plans was that drafted by a committee of the New York State Bar Association. This and the plan drawn up by the committee of the Interparliamentary Union probably had more to do than any other single influence with the plan produced by the First Hague Conference for the establishment of the Permanent International Court of Arbitration. The calling of the First Hague Conference is probably also due, as much as to any one thing, to the Conference of the Interparliamentary Union at Budapest in 1806, to which the Tzar of Russia had sent an official messenger to report to him what the Conference was doing and what its chief purpose was. The report of his messenger as to the eminence of the men at the Budapest Conference and the practical nature of their work hastened the Tzar of Russia in deciding, what he had already for some time had in mind, to call a conference of the nations to deal with the problem of the rivalry of armaments and that of substitutes for war in the settling of international differences.

It is in place here to call attention to the fact that the idea of a Pan-American Congress to promote more intimate trade relations and more friendly intercourse between the republics of the Western Hemisphere, originated, not, as has been supposed, at Washington, but with the American Peace Society. For several years prior to the calling of the first Pan-American Conference by Mr. Blaine memorials were sent annually to Washington by the above-named society,

urging the desirability of such a conference of representatives of all the American states. The Pan-American Conferences have been most powerful in promoting the cause of international peace. They have resulted in the International Union of the American Republics, with its permanent and well-organized Bureau at Washington, the corner-stone of a worthy building for which was recently laid with such impressive ceremonies. It is not boasting, but simple fact, to say that nearly every great step which has so far been officially taken by the governments to bring the nations together into a more rational system of dealing with their mutual interests was first suggested by the peace organizations, and these organizations have been the first to rally to the support of the governments in every step taken by them for the organization of the world in a manner to make war more difficult, and to secure justice, in all cases of dispute, by judicial methods.

At the present time all of the peace organizations, including the Interparliamentary Union and the Mohonk Arbitration Conference, are devoting their chief energies to bring to complete realization the measures which have already been so far advanced by the deliberations and conclusions of the two Hague Conferences. They continue, of course, their propaganda in behalf of the pacific education of the peoples of the different countries. They are carrying their propaganda into universities and colleges, the public schools, chambers of commerce, boards of trade, and into every kind of religious, social and literary society through which the people in their various localities may be most effectively reached. The Mohonk Conference, one of the leading peace agencies of the world, has secured the co-operation, in its promotion of arbitration, of no less than one hundred chambers of commerce and two hundred universities and colleges; and the Intercollegiate Peace Association, founded only three years ago, has already groups in forty-seven universities and colleges.

It is most interesting to note that the practical measures urged from the beginning by the peace organizations for the establishment of universal and permanent peace are coming to realization with a rapidity which has surprised even the

most sanguine of the peacemakers. The decade which saw the first Peace Societies organized saw also the first practical application of the principle of arbitration to the settlement of controversies between sovereign and independent nations. The arbitrations between governments have likewise increased in number in about the same proportion as the Peace Societies have multiplied and extended their influence. By 1850 there had been only about thirty cases of settlement of disputes by this means, but in the last decade of the nineteenth century there were above sixty, or an average of more than six per year for the whole ten years. Since the present century opened, eight years ago, there have been more than sixty international arbitrations.

The whole number of cases of arbitration within the past hundred years now exceeds two hundred and fifty, and the number is about double that, if settlements by commissions which are not formally arbitrations be reckoned in. In all these cases, however delicate the questions involved, the award of arbitrators has always been loyally accepted and carried out. This is a record, the significance of which it is not easy fully to understand.

It is scarcely more than a dozen years since practical work for a Permanent Court of International Arbitration began. Within that time we have seen the Hague Court established, its work successfully begun and its prestige already thoroughly established throughout the world. We have seen the Central American states unite in an international court of justice, the first of its kind to be anywhere set up. In less than five years more than sixty treaties of obligatory arbitration of a limited character have been concluded between the civilized nations two and two, the most recent being the twelve treaties negotiated by Secretary Root and ratified by the United States Senate before the recent adjournment of Congress.

The Second Hague Conference carried the principle of a general treaty of obligatory arbitration a long way toward complete and universal acceptance. It also practically realized the dream of Ladd, Burritt and Sumner of a Congress

and Court of Nations, in deciding that the Hague Conference shall hereafter meet periodically, and in approving unanimously the principle of a Permanent International Court of Arbitral Justice, which only awaits an agreement among the governments, as to the method of appointing the judges, to become an established fact. Thus the ideals of the advocates of peace of the first half of the nineteenth century are becoming the realities of today. The Peace Societies, which in the beginning were either scoffed at or totally ignored are now respected and honored. The Nobel Peace Prize, founded by Mr. Alfred Nobel at the suggestion of the distinguished Austrian peace leader, the Baroness von Suttner, and given each year to the individual or society who has done the most during the year to promote international peace, is considered the highest honor even by the heads of the greatest powers. Kings and emperors and presidents of republics delight to place among their highest titles that of Peacemaker. The Peace Societies have won. The movement which they brought into being and nursed from weakness and obscurity into strength and public honor has now extended itself vastly beyond their limits, and is taking a deep and wide and powerful hold alike upon the masses of the peoples and upon statesmen and governments themselves. Its culmination in the organization and settled peace of the world and the consequent arrest and reduction of armaments is only a question of a few swift years.



Part III. Art, Ancient and Modern—Sports —Skating—A Wedding—Courtship*

By George Wharton Edwards.

CERTAINLY no one can fully appreciate the art of the great Dutch masters till he has seen the country in which they lived and painted. For theirs are pictures which have grown out of the very soil, which have been painted by men who were content to paint the portrait of their own country, artists who could "descry abundant worth in trivial commonplace." The Dutch school is the exponent of everyday life; it has no aspirations after the great and glorious, the mysterious, or the unseen. Nature, as seen in Holland, either out of doors or in the house, is the one inspiration of its art. We are in the domain of naturalism. We must not suppose, however, that the Dutch school in its realistic character, presents nothing but a brutal materialism, and never rises above the delineation of drunken boors at a village inn. There is a truthfulness in the Dutch pictures which commands admiration. It has been well said that "A dead tree by Ruisdael may touch a heart, a bull by Paul Potter may speak eloquently, a kitchen by Kalf may contain a poem." All the painters of this school confine themselves to loving, understanding, and representing Nature, each one adding his own feelings and taste-in fact, adding his individuality. This love of Nature

^{*}Copyright 1908 by George Wharton Edwards. Parts 1. and II. treating respectively the Origin and Characteristics of Holland appeared in the September and October numbers.

is specially manifested in those landscapes and sea-pieces in which the Dutch school excels. Visiting various parts of Holland, in different kinds of weather, we shall see how each painter identifies himself with the special aspect which he depicts. A barren, gloomy landscape under a leaden sky, unrelieved by a living creature, its grim monotony only broken by a waterfall or a dead tree, at once shows us Jacob Van Ruisdael, the "Melancholy Jacques," of landscape painters, who finds "tongues in trees, books in the running brooks. sermons in stones." A bright, early morning, when the sun flashes merrily on white sail and glancing streams, and the fat black and white cattle are browsing knee-deep in the rich meadows reminds us of the lover of light, Albert Cuyp. A warm afternoon, when the shadows of the fruit trees lie across the orchards, and an ox or horse or some other animal lies in the grateful shade, tells us of Paul Potter, the Raphael of modern painters, the La Fontaine of artists. An evening landscape, where amid the grazing cattle, some rustic "Meliboeus sports with Amaryllis in the shade," and presents an idyll such as a Dutch Virgil might have written recalls Adrian Van der Velde. A still pond, with the moon reflected on its surface and a few cottages nearly hidden by the dark alder and poplar trees, brings before us the painter of the night, Van der Neer. The sea-shore with high-stemmed Dutch ships sailing over the waves, is the favorite haunt of Willem Van der Velde; a river flowing on towards the horizon, and reflecting a dull gray sky, recalls Van Goyen; and if we look on a frozen canal, crowded with skaters. Isack Van Ostade stands confessed. And this is not only true of landscape and sea pictures; the everyday life of Holland is identified in its various phases with different painters of this school. Owing to the changes which time and fashion make, we shall not find in the streets the "Night Watch" of Rembrandt, or the "Banquet" of Van der Helst in the town hall, the long satin robes of Ter Borch, the plumed cavaliers of Wouverman, or the drunken peasants of Adriaan Van Ostade. And if, in passing through a Dutch town we see a young girl leaning on the old balustrade of a window, surrounded with ivy and

354 Reading Journey in the Hollow-Land

geraniums, we may still recognize Gerard Dou. In the peaceful interior of a Gothic house where an old woman is spinning and which is lighted by the warm rays of the sun, we see Pieter de Hooch. How did such a body of painters contrive to spring from such an unromantic and distressful period as the latter half of the sixteenth century, from so small a country, and during the time of life and death struggle known as the eighty years' war, when the fortunes of the nation reached their lowest ebb? The enigma is still unsolved. The artists followed one another in quick succession.

Born in		Born in	
Frans Hals	1580	Paul Potter	1625
Van Honthorst	1590	Jan Steen	1626
Adriaen Brouwer	1605	Jacob van Ruysdael	1628
Rembrandt	1606	De Hooch and Metsu	1630
Jan Lievens	1607	Nicholas Maes and Ver-	_
Adriaan van Ostade	1610	meer	1632
Van der Helst	1611	Adrian van der Velde	1635
Gerard Dou	1613	Van Mieris (senior)	1635
Govert Flinck	1615	Hondecoeter	1636
Ferdinand Bol		Van der Heyden	1637
Ter Borch		Hobbema	1638
Wouverman	1619	Jan Weenix	1640
Albert Cuyp	1620	· ·	•

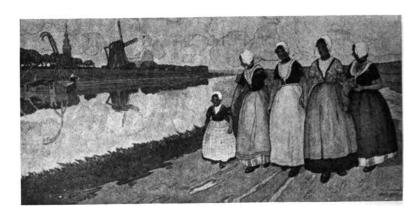
The earliest dawn of art in modern Europe, as shown in fresco and distemper, is found on the southern side of the Alps; but painting in oil, the art which glows on the canvas of a Raphael, a Titian, or a Rembrandt, had its origin in the Netherlands. Most authorities from the days of Vasari have credited the discovery of oil painting to the brothers Van Eyck, who painted at the Hague, Ghent and Bruges, during the latter part of the fourteenth and the early part of the fifteenth century. But they were not the first artists of the Netherlands in point of time. For centuries the churches had been filled with paintings which seemed to have possessed considerable merit. (Davies' "Holland.") The moist climate, however, worked destruction to most of the wall productions. The churches of Italy with their wide walls and broad roof spaces afforded scope for fresco decoration which was



By the North Sea, Evening.



Fishing Boat Homeward Bound. Volendam, Holland.



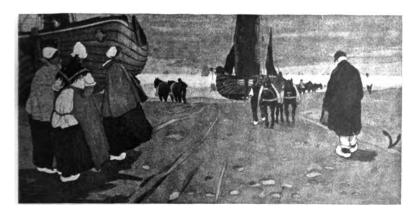
A Holland Scene.



Bringing in Fagots, Winter.



By the Wharf.



Beaching the Fishing Boat.



On a Dutch Canal.



A Picturesque Costume.



Washday.

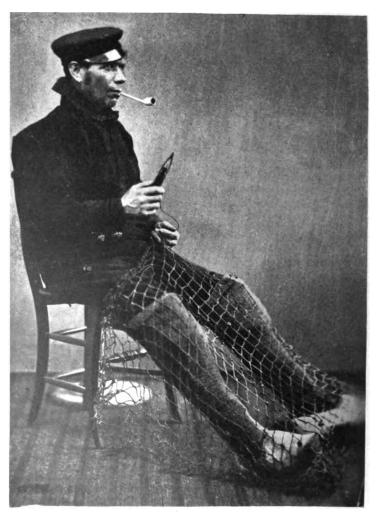


A Substantial Citizen.





North Sea Fishermen, Holland.



Type of Dutch Fisherman.



A Dutch Boer or Farmer.



Fisherwoman, Scheveningen.

wanting in the structures of a Gothic type. Hence, the Netherland paintings were of a different class, being smaller and mostly executed on wooden panels. The ground work of the panel was prepared with a thin coating of fine plaster and upon this coating were laid the colors mixed with the white of an egg or the juice of unripe figs. Oil was employed but its use was attended with great disadvantages. It was difficult to lay the colors finely with it and they took a long time to dry. For this reason it was never used in the finished part of the work but only for large masses of drapery and the like. The great objection to this process lay in the fact, not then discovered to its full extent, however, that in time the whole mass flaked off, leaving nothing but the bare surface of the panel. The Van Eyck brothers mixed some substance. probably resin, with boiled oil, and found that they had a medium which dried quickly and with which the finest and most delicate work could be accomplished. The plaster on the panel was interpenetrated with this varnish and the whole wrought so finely together that at last the surface became like enamel and it is generally next to impossible to detect the traces of the brush. (See Conway's "Early Flemish Artists," also Burger's well-known book on the "Musees de la Hollande," in which Dutch painting is most exhaustively treated.)

Of the modern school of painting numerous examples are scattered all over Holland. In Rotterdam at Boyman's Museum are some splendid examples, also Teyler's Museum at Haarlem. Examples of Mesdag, the painter of the sea, are found in nearly all cities. He paints the sea in its prevailing tones of gray. Israels paints his figures with great power in both oil and water color, and his pictures appeal to the imagination from the very simplicity of composition. They are quiet, even melancholy in sentiment, depicting scenes of poverty with great feeling. Anton Mauve lived near Muiderburg on the Zuider Zee and had a great love for sheep. There is a deliciously cool and exquisite touch in all his work. No other artist of our time has painted so sympathetically that soft, violet gray light which envelopes the land-scape and the creamy dunes, crested with sparse grass tufts,

368 Reading Journey in the Hollow-Land

and the feathery trees of North Holland. Roelaf's landscapes should be seen and studied. Also the interior views of the Dutch churches by Bosbooms. The brothers Maris who painted an enormous number of pictures and whose paintings are in nearly every prominent collection in Europe and America have upheld upon their brush points with the · above-mentioned men the glory of the modern art of the Netherlands. Pieneman was a most assiduous worker with tendencies toward the heroic school of Jordeans of Antwerp, much of whose work is to be seen in Holland, notably in the Orange Room at the Huis ten Bosch, Hague. His most ambitious work is that huge canvas at the Rijks Museum, "Battle of Waterloo." It measures twenty-six feet by eighteen feet. The subject, of course, appeals to every Dutchman, for the Prince of Orange was one of the many heroes of that day. This picture was painted in 1884.

Sir L. Alma Tadema, that most distinguished Hollander whose work is well known the world over and who lives in a veritable palace in London, England, was born at Marssum, near Leewarden. He studied under the famous painter, Baron Leys, and also worked for a considerable time with his uncle, Mesdag, the marine painter.

As we have seen then, at the close of the seventeenth century the Dutch school was practically extinct and remained so for a hundred years. As these great masters came, so they went quickly and mysteriously, and although a second Rembrandt has not appeared nor a Paul Potter, yet the Netherlands has in this last-mentioned list of modern painters an academical body, yet without its restricted forms, of whom it may well be proud.

The Netherlands, of course, is a maritime nation, a nation of sailors and fishermen. The whole coast is dotted with fishing villages which are fast losing their character, and becoming fashionable watering places. Of these Scheveningen is perhaps the chief, and still maintains a large fleet of extremely picturesque fishing boats (pinken), the cargos of which are sold by auction on the beach immediately on their arrival. I have tried in vain to understand the system of

sale, and I have often tried to describe it. The scene on such occasions is often very picturesque and highly amusing. The boats are wide and deep and open in the center of the ribs, and only decked fore and aft. On each side are huge "lee boards," for the boats are flat-bottomed. They are of one mast and carry a jib and mainsail, dyed deep, golden brown. There is no paint used on the bodies of the boats save a strip of the most delicate green near the "gun-wale." The hull is covered with a thick coating of hard oil, giving the wood a most beautiful appearance. To see the fleet from off shore come sailing in at full speed, all in line and run up on the sand, high and dry, is a sight worth traveling far to witness. The village people in their wonderful and varied costumes, the fathers, too aged to work, and the mothers and children await their coming in long lines on the beaches. Horses are hitched up and driven at full speed into the shallow water and made fast to long lines stretching from the bows of the boats which they pull shoreward, driven by loud cries and exclamations. Then the "patroons" or captains descend with dignity from their respective boats and mounting on the backs of some of the men, are conveyed ashore through the surf to the beach, where they await stolidly the unloading of the fish. The fishing is prosecuted with considerable success. Drag-nets or trawls, as they are called, are thrown overboard and hauled along the bottom of the shallow waters of the North Sea naturally scraping up everything in their way. Large numbers of skate are caught. Other vessels go still further, even as far as the north coast of Scotland after the herring and meet with great success. The men are splendid and sturdy specimens of their race, blond and blue-eyed with fine bronze skins, and some of them with great charm and openness of character. They are simple and loyal and treat the stranger with great courtesy and kindness. All the fishing boats are registered and numbered under the law and are controlled and watched over by the revenue cutters. Of course, there is much drinking among the men as is to be expected.

In the season there is great interest in horse racing. There are fine tracks at Rotterdam, at Amsterdam, at Woest-

370 Reading Journey in the Hollow-Land

Duin near Haarlem, at Utrecht, and at Groningen. The sport has its organ, a weekly newspaper named *Hippos*. The scene at these races is often quite gay and animated, and considerable money changes hands through the presence of large bodies of strangers from Germany and Belgium.

There are many rowing and sailing clubs, the principal one being under royal patronage and called "The Royal Dutch Rowing and Sailing Club" with headquarters at Amsterdam. The outer side of the Amstel is a favorite piece of water for the racing of small craft; while the Ij and the nearby Zuider Zee are used by larger boats. During the season several very successful regattas are held on the River Ij. The official organ which may be studied for particulars is the Nederland-sche Sport.

To the cycler, the signs everywhere seen through Holland bearing the word "Wielrijders" (cyclists) should be carefully regarded if followed by the word "Verboden" (forbidden), for the Dutchman is not always patient with the foreigner at any infringement of the law. The official touring club is called the "Alg. Ned. Wielrijdersbond." This is a most flourishing well-established association, and under its laws has resulted in the manifest improvement of the roadways. All through the country are seen sign and distance posts emblazoned with the familiar, winged wheel, and fixed charges are maintained at the different hotels. The sign for the hotel is "Bonds-Hotel." The distances marked on the post are in kilometers. The automobile is now a common sight through Holland. I well remember my own experience in the first machine perhaps which the "Vollendammers" had ever seen and which came up from Amsterdam purposely to deposit me at "Spanders." And the throngs of excited peasants, shaken for the nonce out of their usual apathy. The machine was a noisy red one and the petroleum gases forming in the exhaust suddenly igniting went off with the noise of a small cannon, at which the excited Mynheers promptly withdrew their hands from their capacious pockets, shut their eyes, closed their mouths and seizing their children by the shoulders or anything they could get hold of, promptly fled to a safe

distance. Me they regarded as a being miraculously endowed with unheard of courage and protected by the wing of some sweet little cherub from his seat up aloft, and as such entitled to a new distinction and respect. The chauffeur they regarded as some sort of monster removed from their ken, and when he gruffly spoke to them in their own tongue they refused to believe the evidence of their ears and only stared, and when he turned the machine with great skill in the narrow roadway by the canal and opened the throttle, vanishing noisily in a cloud of dust, they remained standing one and all spellbound and speechless, so that I had to carry my own traps to the little stairway which I mounted and along the raised pathway until I met the hospitable Spander who welcomed me with open arms. But the Dutchman is now very familiar with the automobile and regards it with a certain degree of contempt, considering it only in the light of its occupants and as furnishing him with extra gulden. Indeed the demands of the modern Dutchman upon the gulden of the inexperienced traveler are only limited by the latter's willingness to disgorge. This will be, I think, sufficient warning.

Intending visitors to Holland in the winter will do well to join one of the skating clubs to be found in every town, as the sport is most popular throughout the country. Nearly all the larger clubs are members of the Dutch Skating Association or the "Nederlandsche Schaatsenrijderspond," at Groningen. The Hollanders learned to skate from the Romans. and examples of the earliest skates which they used may be seen in the different museums. They were made of bones, smoothed and polished to a flat surface and were tied to the feet with strings. The scene on the rivers and canals in the winter is a most animated and interesting one, and the Dutch are completely transformed. No sooner does the ice bear than the whole people begin to glide and swirl to the poetry of motion. The canals then become the real streets. The sound of discordant organs from the merry-go-rounds is heard everywhere, and over all is the pungent odor of the stale grease from the "Poffertjes" and "Wafelen" booths, presided over by fat, bare-armed "Vrouwes" who make them with inde-

372 Reading Journey in the Hollow-Land

scribable rapidity for the ravenous peasants. The first are little round pancaky blobs, twisted, cooked in grease and covered with butter and sugar. The "Wafelen" are oblong wafers stamped thinly in an iron mould, fried and also buttered and sugared. It is etiquette to eat two dozen "Poffertjes" and two of "Wafelen" at the first order. Afterwards you may eat as many as you wish. A thin, sour beer is drunk with them, or a sickly, sweet lemonade. To eat them is one's duty. To watch the cooking is a fascination. They are made by hundreds at once over a brisk, charcoal fire. The cook busies herself in twisting the little dabs of pasty dough into the moulds, and dumping out those that are cooked. One may see pictures in the museums painted by Jan Steen, showing the operation. The peasants stand in rows before these booths, eating the dainties. They are very noisy, and while one sees but little drunkenness there is very little real revelry. The Dutch take their pleasures very stolidly, and the great evidence of the "festa" is the glare of the naptha and the loud, blaring notes of the steam organs. The Dutchman, when he wearies of skating in the winter, seats himself with his "meisie" by his side on the backs of the most wonderfully carved and brilliantly painted elephants, camels, horses, griffons, in the "Carroussels" or merry-go-rounds, and will ride for hours at a time with staring eyes and open mouth in a sort of trance, until he is pulled off forcibly by the owner of the machine and made to pay up. There are numerous side-shows on the banks with two-headed boys, giant females, dwarf ponies, etc., presided over by loud-tongued barkers, but the devotee of the sport will prefer to leave these scenes behind and glide along into the country districts over the smooth ice in company with the brilliantly costumed and bright-cheeked peasantry, arriving at the next town in time for dinner, which should be ordered in advance unless the town is a large one. The skating carnival is generally the cause of many weddings among the peasantry, and if one is so happy as to be present at one of these a most interesting experience may be enjoyed. Thursday is the peasant's day for the ceremony, for on this day the fees are very small. My Dutch friend says that on other days

it is "largely expensive" to be married. The "Koster" complains bitterly of the present economical tendency which induces so many young couples to dispense with the religious ceremony in favor of the civic marriage. My Dutch friend explains that there are several distinct decorative ceremonies at church, ranging in price from say four guilders to twentyfive and for the latter figure there are carpets and artificial flowers and trappings galore. On Thursdays, then, there are generally a number of couples at the church waiting their turn. The happy bride is brought in a high-backed "Tilbury," if in the country, the interior of which is decorated with two large mirrors in the shape of a heart lavishly trimmed with artificial white flowers, where she sits admiringly contemplated by the party. The ceremony is rattled through with great rapidity, after which the peasants depart to the nearest hotel in procession, the groom in full evening dress, and with a stolid, bored expression. He consumes vast quantities of beer, after which comes the banquet. This, it is explained, is the second ceremony, for when the preliminaries of an engagement are decided upon a betrothal dinner is held. The friends are invited to the wedding by the present of a box of sweets, or maybe a bottle of wine, popularly known as "bride's tears." On the day of the wedding the whole party imbibe generously of a certain brand of this wine, which contains small floating particles of gold-leaf. The whole party, afterwards, dance and carouse for the balance of the night. There are other strange customs pertaining to the ceremony, but perhaps they may well be left to the imagination. I was invited to one ceremony which seemed so peculiar that I cannot refrain from describing it. On this occasion I happened to meet with the Consul, an American friend, who invited me to go with him to witness a civil ceremony of marriage, which he said was most peculiar, according to our ideas. When we arrived at the house the ceremony had begun. The happy couple were standing together before the burgomaster who was empowered to perform the service. I could not understand quite what was being said, but when it was over the bride who was gorgeously arrayed with a wreath of flowers about her lace cap,

374 Reading Journey in the Hollow-Land

through the meshes of which shone a magnificent beaten gold head-dress with pendant diamond sparks at each side of her rosy face, and with many strings of coral beads about her throat, her figure arrayed in the Zeeland costume, shook hands first with the groom, then with the burgomaster and disappeared from view into a back room, with her girl companions. The groom drank off a large goblet of warm, sweet champagne, the temperature and quality of which I discovered when my own glass was filled. Round after round of wine was consumed and huge slabs of cake were passed about until in desperation and hidden by the crowd, in self defense I emptied my brimming goblet surreptitiously on the floor. I managed to ask the Consul, whisperingly, to explain. He said that the bridegroom was in South Africa and unable to be present, that the couple wished to be married at once, that he had sent for the bride to come to him, and as it was contrary to etiquette for the bride to go to him unmarried the bridegroom's brother acted as proxy, and that the young damsel, now a blushing bride, would sail by the steamer from Amsterdam for Natal the following morning. The usual custom of an all-night celebration was then observed. Dancing ensued to the music of a discordant band, and the constant eating and drinking among non-dancers went on. We all signed our names in a large book, and I was most hospitably urged to remain as a distinguished guest. My friend, the Consul, told me that this was not an unusual ceremony, but I had never heard of it before. There is an old saying in Holland that there are only two things a girl chooses herself-"her potatoes and her lover." They see each other at the "Kermis" and then the lad feels his heart's desire. So he puts on all his best clothes and bravely goes to her parents' house. The father and mother give him welcome, the girls smile and nudge each other, and no one refers to the purpose of his visit, though, of course, they well know why he has come. At last they all retire from the room, even the father and mother, and the two are left alone beside the fire. They speak of everything but the subject at heart. Not a word of love is uttered, but mark you, if she does not feed the fire on the

hearth and it goes down it is a hint that she does not care for him, but if she heaps piles of fuel on the fire he knows that she loves him and means to accept him for her husband, and he knows that it is all right, and from that day forward he is accepted as one of the family. The engagement is for a year or two, more or less, and they are permitted to go everywhere alone, and amuse themselves without criticism or interference on the part of the parents.





III. Rembrandt and His Pupils*

By George Breed Zug

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IN last month's article it was pointed out that throughout Rembrandt's long career there was a steady progress in technical mastery, in his ability to paint, and above all in his knowledge of humanity and in his depth of insight. This deepening of spiritual expression was illustrated by his corporation pictures and portraits, but it marks all his works in their entire range, and is especially noticeable in his pictures from sacred story. It is an acknowledged truth of criticism that hardly any master has produced the greatest art without possessing a broad knowledge of men, and also an acquaintance with personal suffering. It is important, therefore, to notice briefly some of the events in the life of our master, to observe how he was buffeted by fortune.

It has been seen that until his twenty-sixth year Rembrandt was really occupied with learning to paint. His pictures up to 1632 present excellent realistic workmanship similar to that of other Dutch painters. It was in the year 1632 that he painted the "Anatomy Lesson," which departed from the traditions of the school and established the reputation of the painter. From 1632 to 1642, the year of the "Night Watch," is the period of our master's outward prosperity, and includes also his eight years of happy married

^{*}Articles of this series which have already appeared are: I. "Frans Hals and the Portrait," September; II. "Rembrandt," October.

life. The great German authority, Bode, estimates that during most of this period Rembrandt was earning somewhere between \$25,000 and \$30,000 every year. Moreover his wife, Saskia, had brought him a fortune of at least 20,000 florins. His financial prosperity was indicative of his professional success. After he was established at Amsterdam "he was crowded with commissions. Fellow-painters, diplomats, ladies of high degree, statesmen and clergymen were eager to be painted by the greatest master of the time. Some of them had to wait months for the privilege of sitting." In view of this it is surprising to learn that the years from 1642, when his wife died, to 1656 were years of gradually declining worldly fortune and worldly esteem that ended in social and financial ruin so that in 1656 he was declared bankrupt, and died in 1660 an undischarged bankrupt, possessing nothing which he could call his own besides his clothing and his artist's materials. The illness and death of the painter of "The Syndics" and of "The Anatomy Lesson" passed almost unnoticed, the bare fact of his burial being attested by an official entry. How is this extraordinary change to be explained? What led so successful and so great a man to social and financial ruin, almost to oblivion? To reply to this question let us go back in the story of his life.

In 1634 he married Saskia van Ulyenborch, a young woman of wealthier and better family than his own. Only their fourth child, Titus, lived to manhood, to the age of twenty-seven, dying one year before his father. Rembrandt's relations with Saskia were most happy. There are numerous portraits of her in chalk, etching and in paint. One of the latter shows her as a young wife seated upon the lap of her husband while he turns his smiling face to the spectator. There seems to have been perfect comradeship between husband and wife. During the years just before and just after her death Rembrandt painted a number of pictures which seem to show his love for the domestic life. One of the most touching of these is "The Carpenter's Household" in the Louvre in which in a quiet interior a mother sits nursing her child while the grandmother, Bible in hand, leans over to view the infant

face, while the father works at his bench by the window. Not long after the death of Saskia there was introduced into his household a young peasant girl, Hendrickje Stoffels. She seems to have performed all the offices of a faithful and devoted wife, yet there is no record that she was ever married to the painter. Hendrickje was reprimanded by her church and refused the sacrament of communion, because of her relations to Rembrandt. The result seems to have been social scandal and social ostracism. Rembrandt was indefatigable in his work; after a day of painting he spent the evening in drawing or etching. He withdrew into himself, shut himself up to his work, or studied the Jews of the lower classes and the beggars and let the world pass on its way. By his habits of life, his modest nature, his sympathy with people of low condition, his financial and social condition he seems to have estranged the friends of his prosperity.

It was also in 1642 that Rembrandt painted "The Night Watch," that most puzzling of pictures, for which Captain Banning Cocq and his company cared as little as the rest of the world. Instead of painting, as before, to please his clients he now painted to please himself, and with the result that his work became more and more original in conception and treatment. But it had too much imagination, too much romance of light and shade for the Dutch public, and from this time his popularity as an artist waned. Another cause for his financial condition was the fact that throughout the years of his happy union with Saskia he was continually lavishing upon her rich gifts, jewels and the richest garments. And not only did he heap treasures upon Saskia, but in order to form a motley collection of studio properties, "he was," to quote a contemporary, "constantly visiting the places of public auctions, and there procured him ancient and castoff costumes, which seemed to him quaint and picturesque, and all these things, though they were often full of dust, he would hang up on the walls of his studio side by side with all the fine and showy objects in which he took so much delight." These objects of value or of curiosity together with various specimens of steel or iron armour and a variety of fantastic head dresses must

have formed a curious collection and are worthy of mention because of his habit of dressing his sitters in surprising costumes, and because of the light they throw on his extravagance. For he is reported as offering at once so high a price for any desired object that no other bidder would come forward, and that he then excused his action by saying that he was glad to pay the extravagant price since it "exalted the honor of his art." For the proper installation of his collections and for his studio purposes Rembrandt purchased in January, 1639, the house in the Joden Breestraat, Amsterdam, which was to be his headquarters through the main part of his life and which was in 1906 at the celebration of the tercentenary of Rembrandt's birth fitted up as a Rembrandt Museum. The price of the house was to be 13,000 florins, to be paid in installments, and in view of the considerable sums he was receiving for his pictures, the occasional legacies which fell to him and the payments from his pupils it would seem as if he might have met the payments. But only a few were made and the accumulated interest and the debt made one of the causes of his embarrassment. Rembrandt seems to have been a man of honor, but he was unpractical. He had the improvidence that so often accompanies the artistic temperament. Of all the steps to his financial ruin one can not be sure, but the general course is plain to see. A contemporary writer says that the master "was to be admired not less for his noble devotion to his art than for a kindness of heart verging on extravagance." One old writer says that he was no spendthrift; another that "when he was at work bread and cheese and a pickled herring were enough for his needs." In view of all this it seems as if Rembrandt's financial troubles came partly from circumstances beyond his control and partly from his artistic temperament.

Whether prosperous or bankrupt he seems to have been blessed with a marvelous fullness of the creative impulse. He rested from one form of creative activity by taking up another. Never content with his accomplishment; always possessed of unbounded curiosity he was a prodigious worker throughout his life. No one can say how much of his immense

output has been lost, but enough remains for the glory of a dozen less inspired creators. The work which has come down to us consists of nearly three hundred etchings, about fifteen hundred drawings and between five and six hundred paintings. In each of the mediums employed he produced not only portraits, but also classical, historical and allegorical studies and compositions of the nature of genre, of still-life, animals, landscapes and religious subjects. His etchings and drawings of landscape are among his most important creations. They show the canals and fields of Holland, the thatched cottages and tumble-down barns of his native land with a spontaneity lacking to his paintings of the same subjects. But it is as a painter of religious subjects that he stands alone. The Italian painters had proved themselves great interpreters of sacred themes. Their frescoes and the altarpieces were intended to "make beautiful the house of the Lord," and to teach the doctrines of the church to the unlettered. But all these and nearly all of the early Flemish and German religious pictures were the art of Roman Catholicism. The Madonna, the saints and the martyrs were represented perhaps more frequently than the Founder of Christianity himself. The spirit and the doctrines of Rome were constantly exhibited in line and form and color. There was only the beginning of a change in the works of Durer and Holbein. It remained for Rembrandt to prove himself the first great painter of Protestantism and the greatest of them all.

From the earliest days of his artistic activity Rembrandt was attracted to Biblical subjects. The most important of these early interpretations of the sacred writings is the painting in the Hague Museum, "Simeon in the Temple," executed in 1631, only three years later than the very first of the master's existing pictures. Under the spacious vaults of a Gothic cathedral Joseph and Mary, who have come to make their offering and present their new born child to the Lord, kneel on the pavement in the foreground, while in front of them to their right the high-priest in a glowing purple robe raises his hands in benediction, his back turned towards the spectators. The aged Simeon glancing up with a look of ecstacy and gratitude

holds in his arms the infant Christ. Now that he has beheld the salvation of the Lord he can depart in peace. Looking at this picture one is first impressed with the iridescent color of this central group,—the light blue of Mary's garment, the purple of the high priest, the gold over violet of Simeon. This jewel-like brilliancy is enhanced by the sombre garb of the beggars standing behind Mary and by the rich depths of shadow on either side and above. In many of Rembrandt's pictures it is impossible to explain the source of light, but here it is easily explained by supposing a window high up in the vaulted roof though outside the picture. Among Rembrandt's predecessors some had composed similar pictures with numerous figures in an interior of immense spaciousness, but the tenderness of the chief figure, the glory of color and the contrast of the eloquent gloomy space here reveal the individual genius of the master.

The Apochryphal story of Tobit inspired Rembrandt to its treatment in drawings, etchings and paintings. One of the most moving of these interpretations of this story is the painting in the Louvre of the year 1637, "The Angel Leaving Tobias." This illustrates, incidentally, the artist's tendency to paint pictures of limited dimensions with figures proportionate to the whole. The moment chosen by the master is that in which the angel, his mission accomplished, has revealed himself to the family at the threshold of their dwelling and takes his flight. Overcome with adoration the aged Tobit kneels with bowed head, his wife Anna drops her staff in astonishment and leans against her newly won daughter-inlaw, who, her hands clasped in awe, follows the flight of the angel. The young husband, Tobias, too, expresses his wonder, though not so overcome as his elders. The painting is a masterpiece for its eloquent expression by pose and gesture of the emotions of reverence and amazement, for the rendering of the swift flight of the angel and for the dramatic use of light and shade. Most effective of all is the flashing radiance of the ascending figure, the beautiful adjustment of pale blue dress over the white tunic and the iridescent glory of the wings against the sombre clouds. In this picture as in

the "Christ at Emmaus" and in the "Good Samaritan" it is apparent how Rembrandt presents Bible characters with the aspect and garb of Dutchmen of his own time. Just as the Italians, Flemings and Germans translate the Bible stories in this same way into their own time and country so might Rembrandt be pardoned for doing. His interest is not in ecclesiastical details nor in esthetic theories, but in the emotional import and the dramatic reality of the event, and these he can best bring home to his fellowmen by the expressions and gestures of the very people whom he met on the streets of Amsterdam.

In the "Christ at Emmaus" the disciple at the left clasps his hands as he realizes the truth of the identity of Christ, the bearded man at the right stares in utter amazement, and the stolid servant seems perpexed because they do not eat. The central figure is, in one sense, only an Amsterdam Jew, but his pallid face, his sunken eyes, his blackened lips are those of one who has looked on death; they proclaim their risen Lord. Titian, Giorgione and a dozen other artists have painted Christs that are more beautiful, more godlike, but has any artist created so intimate an image of the suffering Savior? Just as the reverence and tenderness of the figures in the "Simeon in the Temple" are brought out by the expanse of gloomy temple, so here the poignancy of the dramatic moment is emphasized by the shadowed top of the picture. Rembrandt, like Velasquez in his "Maids of Honor," composed in tone as well as in light and shade. He utilized the air-filled space above as well as form and gesture to give meaning to his picture.

Another intensely human picture takes its theme from the parables of our Lord, from the story of "The Good Samaritan." Judging from the number of times Rembrandt treated this theme it seems indeed as though he was striving to translate the compassion, the infinite tenderness of God into terms of human kindness. Eugène Fromentin has written such an appreciative criticism of this work that no apology is needed for quoting him. "It is late; everything is in shadow, except one or two floating gleams which seem to change places



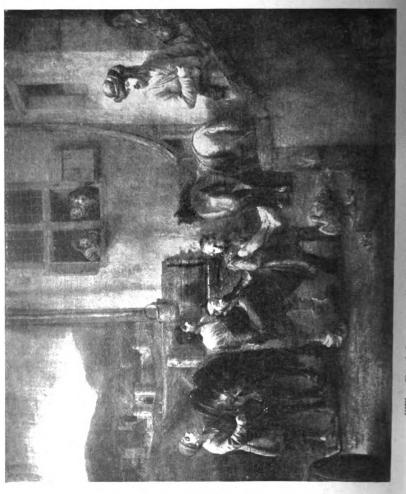
"Simeon in the Temple." By Rembrandt. In the Hague Museum.



"The Angel Leaving Tobias." By Rembrandt. In the Louvre, Paris.



"Christ at Emmaus." By Rembrandt. In the Louvre, Paris.



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"A Negress." By Gerard Dou. In the Hannover Museum.



Portrait of Himself. By Gerard Dou. In the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam.



Night School. By Gerard Dou. In the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam

on the canvas so capriciously are they arranged, so mobile and light; nothing disturbs the tranquil uniformity of the twilight. In this pale, thin, and groaning countenance there is nothing which is not an expression, something from the soul, from within out—look around this picture—search the great gallery—consult the most powerful and most skillful painters—and ask yourself if you perceive anywhere such inwardness in the expression of a face, emotion of such nature, such simplicity in the way of feeling, anything, in a word, so delicate in conception and expression, or which has been said in terms either more original, more exquisite, or more perfect."*

When looking at the best of the master's paintings one feels he was an artist whose genius was best expressed in paint; when studying his drawings one is sure he was born to use chalk and pencil; when enjoying his etchings the student is convinced that here indeed was the master etcher. Before Rembrandt many artists had practised engraving. Some few had begun to try the etching process. But it is the glory of Rembrandt that he developed etching to such an extent as to make it a new art, and he remains after three centuries the greatest of all etchers. "Christ Healing the Sick," one of his most famous prints, is often called "The Hundred Guilder Print," because it is believed that he received that amount for one copy,—an amount equal to forty or fifty dollars. A good example of this print was sold, however, in 1893, in London, for no less a sum than £1,750. The print is intended as an illustration of the nineteenth chapter of Matthew. On the left there is a wedge-shaped group of figures representing disciples, scribes, pharisees, and bystanders, some of whom press toward Christ. On the right a company of the maimed and halt and blind press toward the central figure for healing. Numerous as the figures are they are dominated by the majestic Christ who seems to be addressing a woman with a child in her arms, thus suggesting the words "Suffer little children to come unto me," while the phrase "and forbid them not" is suggested by the figure of Peter, who pushes the woman back.

*"The Old Masters of Belgium and Holland." E. Fromentin. Translated by Mary E. Robbins. Pages 284-287.

These figures together with those of the sufferers, and the benignancy of the Christ all emphasize again the Christian doctrine of compassion. The variety of the figures, the tender interpretation of human suffering together with a use of light and shade almost suggesting color and atmosphere make the work a triumph of Rembrandt's skill and insight.

While Rembrandt was still in Leyden he seems to have attracted pupils, for in 1628 when he was only twenty-two years of age he had three young men working in his studio. Of these three Gerard Dou, at that time a lad of but fifteen. was destined to the greatest success. For a while he was influenced by Rembrandt's peculiar treatment of light and shade, but he early developed a style marked by excessive care and painstaking elaboration of details. While Rembrandt worked more and more broadly, his pupil, who had previously been apprenticed to an engraver and glass painter. worked with increasing precision and elaboration. At first Dou devoted himself to portraits of very small size, but it is said that he wearied his sitters with his extreme care, requiring five days for the painting of a lady's hand, and three days for a broomstick "hardly bigger than your fingernail." "By this tediousness," writes Sandrart, a contemporary of Dou, "he spoiled all pleasure in sitting in such wise that a usually amiable face was distorted with vexation, melancholy, and displeasure." The result was that commissions for portraits were becoming fewer, and Dou was led to abandon that branch of art and devote himself to small subject pictures. A most successful example of his portrait art is seen in "A Negress." The turban with its aigrette, the skin with its shiny high lights, set off by the masses of white, the rich blue of the garment with its heavily jeweled clasp make a striking and harmonious ensemble. Another of his finest works and certainly the best of its class, is the "Portrait of Himself." In the original almost every hair can be seen, every line in the coat and the very threads of the curtain,—which last was enthusiastically praised by his contemporaries. Other artists had made portraits of people standing or sitting at a window. Dou took up the motive and painted many so-called "Niche-pieces."

In these he sometimes placed the grocer's wife, the dentist, the schoolmaster, or the goldsmith in a window, allowing the figure to rest its arms on the sill. Or through the opening of the window he permitted a view of a poulterer's shop, a kitchen or a nursery. Another theme associated with Dou and his followers was that of an aged hermit with long grey beard. Sometimes he is leaning out of the window, sometimes standing, but always with the same accessories—the crucifix, Bible, rosary, and skull.

Another class of subjects characteristic of Dou is the . interior, often also seen through a window, with an effect of lamp or candle light. Such "Night Pieces" as they were called, probably had their origin with some earlier painters and in subjects of Bible history to which night effects seemed appropriate, as the "Birth of Christ" and "Peter in Prison," but the representation of night scenes of domestic and private life elaborately finished, and on a small scale was first adopted as a special phase of art by Gerard Dou. He was fond of painting young girls, old women, and old men gazing at a letter or a Bible by the light of a candle or a lantern. famous "Night School" is one of the best and most elaborate of these night pieces. The schoolmaster behind the central flame is reproving the boy who seems to be leaving, while a little girl is bending over the table spelling out the words on a sheet of paper. At the left an older boy is writing on a slate by the light of a candle held by a young girl. To the right, in the background, a group of children is gathered about another table, their faces lighted by a tiny flame.

In many of Dou's pictures he introduces too many accessories and paints them with such infinite care and smooth finish that the eye wanders here and there in search of a main point of interest. There is in these pictures too much elaboration, too much display of skill for skill's sake. Such pictures bear marks of infinite patience, not of greatest art. In Dou's time minute finish was beginning to be in high favor. Rembrandt and Hals, whose broad manner of painting produces vastly greater art, died in poverty, while connoisseurs clamored for the pictures of Dou and his followers for more

than a century. The prices of his works steadily rose; "An Old Woman by Candle Light" by Dou sold in 1777 for thirty gulden and brought in 1899 six thousand four hundred and forty-three gulden. Even during the life time of Rembrandt one of his large and important pictures would bring about one third the price of a tiny painting by his pupil. It was the triumph of the obvious. Dou was without imagination, apparently without emotion; nature, living or dead, seemed to him merely studio property. His precise drawing and enamel-like finish make his pictures seem lifeless, for the careful finish of hairs and buttons and broom handle represent only the "etymology of art." Dou triumphed for only a time. Rembrandt remains supreme.

In the days of his success and fame Rembrandt had quarters in his house in the Breestraat where from time to time a score or more of pupils were accommodated. They were assigned to cabinets partitioned off from one another by canvas screens, and there they worked from the model or from still life. Nicholaes Maes and Carel Fabritius were two of these pupils who were influenced by the master's methods of color and lighting for a period and until they developed an individual style of their own, as Gerard had done before them. But most of these pupils, such as Govert Flinck, Ferdinand Bol and Jan Victors, were mere followers who did poorly what the master did supremely well. A comparison of the work of these pupils with that of the master in drawing, color, lighting, and interpretation will only bring out this greatness. There have been stories of Rembrandt's aloofness and selfishness; it was claimed that he kept to himself while working so as to preserve the secret of his art. Later writers have. however, shown that he was most generous and kindly to his followers, helping them in all possible ways and that the only secret was his consummate art and unrivaled genius.

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SEARCH AND REVIEW QUESTIONS ON C. L. S. C. REQUIRED READINGS WILL BE FOUND IN THE ROUND TABLE SECTION AT THE BACK OF THIS MAGAZINE.

(End of C. L. S. C. Required Reading for December, Pages 336-396.)

Rembrandt Restoration and Color Photograph

Everybody who goes to Holland looks for at least two of Rembrandt's famous paintings, The Anatomy Lesson and The Night Watch. The Night Watch has now been given a room to itself in the Ryks Museum, at Amsterdam. The Anatomy Lesson, or The School of Anatomy, as the guide books and catalogs give the title,

is in the picture gallery, housed in what is called the Mauritshuis, at The Hague. The rooms of the Mauritshuis are overcrowded, but eleven of the sixteen works by Rembrandt contained in this collection are among the best specimens of his early manner. The Presentation in the Temple, usually called Simeon in the Temple, is here.

When we looked for The School of Anatomy last spring a big, empty frame hung where the picture ought to be seen. Inquiry developed the fact that this canvas had been taken out for restoration and was at the moment locked up and being photographed. On the strength of special interest in connection with our Chautauquan studies and reproductions of Dutch art, permission was gained to enter the closed room, and this is the story of restoration told to us:

The canvas carrying this priceless painting had become so worn out and cracked that a German had undertaken to change the canvas without destroying the picture. He had prepared a kind of matrix on a perfectly level surface and stuck the face of the painting to it. Then he had actually rubbed off the canvas by degrees from the back of the pigment. This wearing away of the canvas by friction, as one might use an eraser, was said to have been accomplished by means of various materials and by finger touches in the final stages. Having, with infinite patience and skill, rubbed off the canvas down to the back of the pigment, a new canvas was attached to carry the painting itself again. Thereupon the matrix was removed from the face of the painting, which, cleaned and varnished, stood on the easel before our eyes as bright and apparently as perfect as if it had been painted recently instead of 276 years ago, thus preserved for centuries more to come.

In the search for photographs, chiefly to illustrate THE CHAUTAU-QUAN'S Reading Journey in the Hollow Land, we found one photographer in Amsterdam who could not contain his enthusiasm over the first successful color photograph of The Night Watch. This photograph had been taken by an American, for the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York, and brought to the Dutchman's establishment for developing. According to this authority, more photographs had been taken of this particular painting than any other in As new photographic processes had been invented, unsuccessful attempts had been made to secure a photograph which would reproduce the colors of the painting itself. The plate used this time was made in France, and similar plates have been successfully used in photographing the natural colors of flowers, landscapes, etc., in the United States. The photograph taken of The Night Watch is a positive, and not a negative, from which prints can be made. The result is a transparency through which one looks to the light and sees the colors of the original painting reproduced.

-Editor of The Chautauquan.

The German Social Policy.

By Charles Richmond Henderson

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FOR more than two centuries the princes of the various German states, moved by the consciousness of their responsibilities as rulers and by their dynastic interests, have sought to gather information about the needs of their people and to form policies in accordance with the discovered facts. They have not all been equally intelligent and humane, and some have been selfish and oppressive; some have been passionate and foolish; but out of their best traditions has grown a system of social care which challenges the admiration of the The finest ideals of the rulers are expressed in the closing part of Goethe's "Faust," where the dying master of lands and folk looks with satisfaction out upon fields redeemed for human habitation and upon an industrious and prosperous people tilling the soil which he has fortified against the encroaching sea. No other nation can show any such unified and scientific organization, least of all our own beloved country, which is still struggling with its atomistic and self-centered notions born of primitive conditions of frontier life where man was separated from man, and where institutions have not had time to develop. With us thought is chaotic and we have not come to accept the principle of national solidarity and obligation for the welfare of all citizens; we do not even aim at that end in any clear, straightforward fashion. Hence we need to learn all we can from Germany, though it would be foolish to copy an institution just as it exists there.

I. Perhaps we may well begin with the idea of national integrity and the consciousness of a mission to mankind. Early in the nineteenth century Fichte encouraged scholars, statesmen and common people, at the moment when they lay prostrate under the stroke of Napoleon's conquering hosts, with a philosophical discourse on national duty. He pictured the races of earth stretching out pleading hands to Germany

and begging it to fulfill its destiny, to cultivate science and philosophy, and to perform noble deeds, so that it might lead mankind out of darkness and despotism. The idealism was superb and found response. The Watch on the Rhine sounded through the ranks of youth, and a new spirit, German and Christian, filled the souls of men. Doubtless there was something of egotism, of pride, of selfishness and of aggressiveness in this purpose; but we ought to acknowledge that a nation cannot be powerful, effective and useful to the world unless it believes in itself, unless it asserts itself and feels that it has reason to live on this planet, and that its conduct has important consequences for humanity. Perhaps the first response to Fichte's appeal came from those classes which had inherited the culture of the earlier periods of history, but gradually they penetrated the groups of wage earners, descendants of freed serfs. Popular poets sang the praises of Fatherland, so that art lent charm and measure to the rising national spirit. It is not too much to say that the most abstract ideal of philosophy deepened the sense of national unity, that religion, in Luther's land, was ever a deep force even with skeptics and free thinkers, and that science was made tributary to the practical program for making the nation's life rich, healthy, and strong.

II. The leaders of the German people have realized with growing clearness that their nation could not fulfil its great destiny without economizing and augmenting the resources of the country, its soil, its mines, and its men. Jahn is a name connected with the movement for improving the physical efficiency of the people; Stein helped organize government; Hegel, Fichte, Schelling worked out a unified thought of life and its relations; eminent chemists, physicists, and biologists made German universities the centers of scientific progress and drew students from all lands; and all knowledge was made to serve practice through gifted inventors and organizers. Leaders of the nation went to work systematically, with cool blood and collected thought, to look over the whole field, to make inventories of their forces, their needs and their perils, and then calculated the cost of measures adapted to promote the national efficiency on every side. When the right

measure was found they did not wait for "evolution," but they put forth acts of will and courage to carry that measure into effect, despite poverty, controversy, war, and all other obstacles.

Let us barely glance at some of the most conspicuous of these acts of a united nation under scientific guidance. In America we are just learning the vital need for expert direction; we still sneer at "theorists"; yet Germany, leader of the world's thoughts, is leader because she has honored and rewarded her theorists, the prophets of thought.

First of all must be counted the consolidation of the twenty-six states of Germany into one Empire, as a part consequence of the Franco-Prussian war, an event for which long preparation had been made and which was consummated at the supreme moment of triumph over France. This consolidation of states made other movements possible. The organization of an army and a navy of the first order was necessary to establish and then to protect the Empire. Russia, Italy, Austria, France, Great Britain were not always to be regarded as pleased with the rise and growth of this formidable power, and safety lay in surrounding the beehive of industry with a cordon of ships, forts and soldiery to defend the stores of accumulated wealth. A rapidly growing population compelled statesmen to think of colonial expansion, regions for the foreign activities and industries of the nation. At least so they thought, and on that idea they have already invested millions and that without economic returns. Perhaps they are wrong, but certainly they are courageous. country is a vast camp and every young man who is physically capable must for a time receive the training of a soldier.

But the Empire asks service only for the sake of the people. The united nation can by uniform laws, valid in every state, secure equal legal rights for all citizens. Very early in the history of the Empire a criminal code was enacted, with a uniform requirement, uniform penalties, uniform procedure everywhere the imperial authority extends. Uniform civil laws regulate industry and commerce, so that each manufacturer and merchant has the same rights in all states, so far as general legislation is concerned; the separate states having

considerable control over local matters, as in the United States. Furthermore the conflicting and restricted poor laws were consolidated into one general law, so that a dependent citizen anywhere in the Empire knows what he can claim in times of extreme need. The cities have a somewhat uniform system of poor relief based on the methods adopted about the middle of the last century in the city of Elberfield, and therefore often called the "Elberfield System." Its principles are essentially those of the English and American Charity Organization Society. The imperial Supreme Court, at Leipsic, secures uniform interpretation of national laws.

III. The Social Policy of the German Empire means that system of regulations and positive legislation which has for its direct object improvement in the physical, economic, and cultural conditions of the masses of the people whose incomes are small and who are likely to be oppressed by employers and to suffer from insufficient and uncertain income. In a larger sense this term "social policy" may be taken to include all the agencies of the German nation acting to the same end through voluntary associations or the deeds of employers, churches, towns and corporations.

It is well known that the great majority of families of wage earners depend upon constant employment for their daily bread, and that few of them save for times of unemployment. Starvation is always within gunshot when labor ceases for any reason. Now the absolute right to be employed by society for wages has never yet been recognized by any modern state. At the same time employers feel it to be their duty to keep their employees busy as long as it is possible considering the condition of the market; they cannot carry on business at a loss. It is dangerous to have large bodies of hungry men idle for a long time and it is demoralizing; therefore German cities have endeavored to furnish information at lowest cost in respect to opportunities for earning wages, since workmen do not always know where labor is needed and employers do not know where workers may be found. The German government has secured a thorough report on the causes and extent of unemployment in various countries

and the best methods of mitigating its evils, as by emergency works of a public character and by the creation of insurance funds in times of active industry to pay out to those who are deprived of occupation at certain seasons of the year.

Theoretically and legally in modern countries each workman is free to make any sort of a contract he pleases with the employer; but, as a matter of fact, the employer has a great advantage in this situation since he can wait while the workman must have occupation as a condition of living, and the employer also has more experience in bargaining, more knowledge of the conditions of the market. Therefore the German law interferes where it is thought that the workman may be compelled to make a "free" contract under duress, under the compulsion of hunger. Starvation is like an invisible but very real lash in the hand of a taskmaster, and the government cannot permit the weaker man to go to earth without help.

German law does not attempt directly to prescribe the rate of wages or to establish a minimum below which an employer shall not employ a workman; but the rate of wages may be raised to some extent by collective bargaining, that is by the agreement of a large number of persons in a trade union not to work unless a certain minimum amount is offered by the employer. It does little good for a single workman to refuse to work; it is only when all or most of the employees act in concert that their demands are heeded seriously. Therefore the German law secures but regulates the right of wage earners to combine and strike. The law also seeks to make the employers pay promptly and at frequent intervals, and to prevent the payment of wages in "truck" which is below the value of the money wages promised.

Among the most interesting and useful institutions of Germany are trade tribunals which settle many disputes between employers and employees at the lowest possible cost and without tedious and expensive delays. It is true these courts do not decide the rate of wages nor fix future contracts, but they dispose of many mischievous causes of strife and quarrels in a very sensible way. In America we very much need similar agencies, for our courts are proverbially slow and

when the lawyers have been paid nothing is left for the workman, even if he has won his suit. Germany has found a better way.

Mr. I.N. Rubinow has already published in this magazine (1905) an admirable description of one of the most important factors in the German social policy, the industrial insurance laws and system of administration. It will not be repeated here; but we should carefully note the relation of this wonderful and successful piece of legislation to all other parts of the public system to which it belongs. In general terms the employers are required by law to provide a fund out of which an injured workman is legally entitled to be paid a sum sufficient to care for him in a hospital or at home during his disability, as well as for his family support; and if he dies in consequence of an accident his widow receives a modest pension until she dies or remarries and the children until they are old enough to leave school and support themselves. sickness insurance funds which care for men for the first thirteen weeks of disability caused by illness or accident are supported by contributions from both employers and employees, the latter paying two thirds of the premiums. These insurance funds, though compulsory, are not managed by the government but by the parties concerned; the government control being carried only so far as to secure an honest and correct management.

Supplementary to the sickness and accident insurance is the pension scheme for invalids and aged persons of the low paid classes of society. Employers pay into the government fund at the same rate as the workers, and when a pension begins the national government grants an additional sum. This is just, because the nation requires every workman to yield several years of his life even in times of peace to military service, and in time of war may ask him to lay down life itself. A pension secured for old age is but small reward for such service to the country. In the United States we pay pensions to wounded soldiers; but in Germany every able bodied man is a soldier.

This system of insurance is closely related to the national policy for improving the efficiency of the people. Thus the employers, having to pay the premiums for insurance are vitally interested in devices for preventing accidents and consequent injuries and in measures for preventing disease, since disability from any cause weakens the working force, lessens the amount of production and increases the cost of insurance. For the same reason the workmen are influenced to use care in respect to accidents and sickness. The government insurance office has actually become a strong advocate of temperance and sexual morality, a preacher of virtue and prudence, because the statistics collected by the imperial bureaus show the unmistakable relation between diminished cost of insurance and good habits. Furthermore the funds accumulated especially by the invalid pension departments are ready for investments in sanatoria, hospitals and wholesome dwellings, and thus serve a double purpose. Tuberculosis has diminished more rapidly in Germany than in any other country because the medical profession has had the use of immense funds in their war upon the causes of disease.' When a workman must appeal to charity he is slow to ask for medical aid; frequently he will conceal his illness from his family and even try to conceal it from himself until it is too late, simply because he will not go to a charity hospital or dispensary. In Germany a workman knows that he has a legal right, without charity, to medical advice and help, and he reports promptly when anything is wrong with his body, and so his chances of cure are greater, his time lost from work is less, and he is in much less danger of infecting others if his disease is contagious in character.

Germany like all other countries has suffered from congestion of population in cities, from crowded and unfit dwellings. Many years ago the government made extensive investigations of the facts, took advice from eminent men of science and set about improving the situation. Laws and ordinances were enacted compelling landlords to provide rooms having suitable light, ventilation and freedom from dampness; crowding was forbidden; the entire matter was

brought under the control of the police. At the same time, from motives of humanity and enlightened self-interest, employers, benevolent associations and building societies undertook to build and maintain separate or combined dwellings for the working people. The cities have also sought to provide modern methods of sewerage and drainage, to isolate cases of contagious disease and disinfect premises after such cases have appeared. As a result of all these measures the progress of public health, as evidenced by decreased mortality, has been greater in cities than in the country, in spite of unfavorable conditions.

The improvement in dwellings is indicated by the fact that in 1875, out of 1,000 dwellings 195.5 had only one heatable room and 20.7 had two heatable rooms; in 1895 these figures had fallen to 132.2 and 10.9. In Frankfort the improvement was even more marked.

IV. What have been the results of this mighty system of care for the working people of Germany? Unquestionably the first evidence of success appears in the diminished sickness and death roll of the nation. Every day that can be added to the life of a child or adult of productive years is a national gain. Length of life and vigor of body are parts of the national wealth and the basis of all happiness in family life.

The decennial average death rate before the insurance laws went into effect (1871-1880) was 28.8 per thousand; in the decade 1891-1900, the rate was only 23.5; the fall being due not to one factor alone but to the entire social policy and the increase of intelligence in the nation. The death rate in Berlin in 1831-1840 was 31.69; in 1902 it had fallen to 17.11. The death rate fell from 40.4 to 21.4 in the city of Munich between the years 1875 and 1902. Professor Ashley shows that the number of suicides in cities, an indication of the courage and hope of the people, has fallen from 31 to 24.5 per 100,000 inhabitants since 1881.

Another outcome of this social policy is the greater productive energy of the laborers and an increase in the population itself, while the population of France remains stationary. When men lose less time from illness, are more promptly

restored from disability, have better food and clothing and dwellings, when they are more hopeful and courageous, they cause the machinery of capitalists to produce more commodities and of a better quality. Within a few years Germany has moved forward from the rear to the advance line of modern industrial countries and her wares of fine quality and low price are found in all the markets of the world, her merchant ships are seen on every sea and in all the ports.

And since capital has been more prosperous and its product greater the share which could fall to labor has increased and so wages have risen everywhere. It was said by enemies of the insurance system mentioned above that the employers would reduce wages by so much as the premiums cost; and even if this had been true the condition of the workmen would have been improved; but it is not true. Wages have increased and the employers have added millions of money in the form of insurance premiums to help the sick, injured and aged in times of distress and weakness. In the year 1891, 63.7 per cent of wage earners enrolled in the pension scheme belonged to the classes having very low wages; while in 1902 only 45.9 per cent remained in these classes; the majority having risen in the scale.

While the methods of poor relief have been made more liberal, adequate and humane fewer persons have been found to depend on charity; a spirit of personal independence has grown. The number of persons in receipt of poor relief has diminished in Hamburg in spite of the rapid increase in population, and this is true of Crefeld, Mannheim and Erfurt. The relative number of orphans supported by charity has also diminished.

It may be noted that at all points improvement is manifest; the deposits in savings banks have steadily increased, although the let alone people always predict that insurance will destroy the habit of saving. The co-operative movement has prospered, and that is another form of organized and voluntary thrift; the number of members in 1864 was only 7,700, and in 1900 it had risen to 522,000. The consumption of good food has increased, cereals, sugar, rice, fruit, meat.

On the other hand the consumption of strong spirits seems to have diminished.

All these years the working people have become more intelligent, have sent their children longer to school, have often joined the ranks of professional men, have become a political power, have gained experience in administration in their insurance associations, in the army and in the industrial courts. Their political party, the Social Democracy, is the largest party in the empire and holds the balance of power; it cannot be ignored. And the very fact that the working people can now secure their rights by lawful and constitutional means diminishes resort to violence. Why should they risk life and spill blood when they have only to make speeches enough and the Reichstag will give them what is just? It is a good deal more comfortable to make eloquent speeches than to have one's head broken in a mob, and that without any real gain. Employers are more ready than formerly to treat with their employees through trade unions and to form trade agreements in order to avoid strikes and interruptions of industry.

We in America have not duly considered the meaning of one fact which is familiar to all who have given even superficial attention to the statistics of immigration. It is well known that since about 1800 the character of immigration has totally changed; that we no longer gain much from the countries of Northern Europe, and especially from Germany, whence multitudes of our best earlier immigrants came. Have we ever thought that one important cause of this change has been the new social policy of Germany and other countries of the same class? We wonder why young men are willing to submit to military service when they might come to America and escape. It is not strange; Germany offers more security of existence in times of illness, accident, invalidism and old age than any other country; and her sons will not willingly leave these advantages for the uncertainty of America. Only those who fly from oppression, poverty and hard vicissitudes are willing to expatriate themselves. In the year 1884 the emigration over sea from Germany drained away 3.22 per

cent of the vigorous people of Germany, while the rate in 1903 was only 0.62 per cent.

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Kuno Frankenstein. "Der Arbeiterschutz, seine Theorie und Politik."

There are numerous magazine articles in all languages.



Famous European Short Stories*

The Elixir of Pere Gaucher

By Alphonse Daudet

RINK this, neighbor, and tell me what you think of it."
And drop by drop, with the scrupulous care of a lapidary counting pearls, the curé of Graveson poured out two fingers of a green, golden, warm, sparkling, exquisite liqueur. It brought a flood of sunshine into my stomach.

"It is Père Gaucher's elixir, the joy and the health of our Provence," said the good man, with a triumphant air; "it is made at the convent of Prémontrés, a couple of leagues from your mill. Is it not worth all the Chartreuse in the world? And if you knew just how amusing the story of this elixir is! Just listen!"

Then, quite simply, and without seeing the joke of it, the abbé began in the dining-room of the presbytere, so quiet and calm, with its Way of the Cross in little pictures, and its pretty white curtains starched like surplices, a somewhat skeptical and irreverent story, of the fashion of a tale by Erasmus or D'Assoucy.

Twenty years ago the Prémontrés—or rather the White Fathers, as our Provençaux call them—had become wretchedly poor. If you had seen their house in those days, you would have pitied them.

The great wall and the Pacôme Tower were crumbling away. All about the grass-grown cloister the colonnades were falling, and the stone saints toppling over in their niches. There was not a whole window, or a door which would shut. The Rhone wind blew in the closes and in the chapels, extinguishing the candles, breaking the lead of the casements and spilling the holy water from the basins. But saddest of all

^{* *}From "Letters from My Mill," by Alphonse Daudet. Copyright, 1893, by Dodd, Mead and Co. Reprinted through the courtesy of the publishers.

was the convent belfry, as silent as an empty dove-cote; and the fathers, for lack of money to buy a bell, were obliged to ring matins on rattles made of almond wood!

Poor White Fathers! I can still see them at the Corpus Christi procession marching sadly in their patched gowns, pale, thin, fed on a diet of lemons and watermelons; and behind them the abbot, who walked with hanging head, ashamed to show his ungilded crosier and his moth-eaten mitre of white cloth. The ladies of the sisterhood wept with pity in the ranks, and the fat banner bearer sneered in their midst under his breath as he pointed at the poor monks:

"Starlings go thin when they go in flocks."

The fact is that the unfortunate White Fathers had themselves reached the point of questioning whether it would not be better for them to take their flight into the world, each to seek his food in his own direction.

Well, one day when they were debating this grave question in the chapter, word was brought to the prior that Frère Gaucher asked to be heard by the council. You must know, for your better comprehension, that this Frère Gaucher was herdsman of the convent; that is to say, he spent his days wandering from arcade to arcade in the cloister, driving before him two lean cows which sought for grass in the cracks of the pavement. The poor herdsman, who had been cared for till the age of twelve by a crazy old woman of Baux called Aunt Bégon, and who since then had been taken in by the monks, had never been able to learn anything but to drive his cattle and to say his Pater Noster; and even that he said in Provencal, for his brain was impenetrable, and his wit like a leaden dagger. For the rest he was a fervent Christian, though somewhat visionary, comfortable in his hair shirt, flagellating himself with hearty sincerity, and with such arms!

When they saw him enter the chapter-house, simple and awkward, bowing to the company with a scrape of the foot, the prior, the canons and treasurer all began to laugh. It was the effect he always produced whenever he went anywhere, by his good face with its grayish goat-like beard and

410 Famous European Short Stories

his somewhat wild eyes, and therefore Frère Gaucher was not disturbed by it.

"Reverend Fathers," said he good-humouredly, twisting his olive-wood rosary, "they are right when they say that empty hogsheads sing the loudest. By digging in my poor head, which is already so hollow, I think that I have discovered the means of getting us out of our difficulties.

"This is how. You remember Aunt Bégon, that good woman who took care of me when I was little? (May God keep her soul, the old sinner! she sang terrible songs when she had been drinking!) I must tell you then, Reverend Fathers, that Aunt Bégon knew as much about the herbs of our mountains as—yes, more than an old Corsican blackbird. Among other things she had composed toward the end of her life an incomparable elixir by mixing five or six kinds of simples which we used to go together and gather on the Alpilles. That is many years ago, but I think that with the help of Saint Augustine and the permission of our father, the abbot, I might, if I tried hard, recover the composition of this mysterious elixir. Then we would have nothing to do but to put it into bottles and to sell it somewhat dear, which would allow the community to grow rich quietly, like our brothers of La Trappe and the Grande-"

He had not time to finish. The prior had risen and fallen upon his neck. The canons clasped his hands. The treasurer, more deeply moved than any of the others, kissed with respect the tattered border of his robe. Then each one returned to his stall to deliberate, and on the spot the chapter decided that they would intrust the cows to Frère Thrasybule, in order that Frère Gaucher might give himself up wholly to the confection of his elixir.

How did the good brother succeed in recovering Aunt Bégon's receipt? At the cost of what efforts, what vigils? History does not say. Only, what is certain is that at the end of six months the elixir of the White Fathers was already very popular. In the whole county, in the whole neighborhood of Arles, there was not a mas nor a grange, which had not, in the depths of its cupboard, between the bottles of

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mulled wine and the jars of picholine olives, a little brown earthenware flagon, sealed with the arms of Provence, with a monk in ecstasy on a silver label. Thanks to the popularity of its elixir the house of the Prémontrés grew rich very rapidly. They rebuilt the Pacôme Tower. The prior had a new mitre, the church pretty stained-glass windows; and within the fine lace of the belfry, a whole covey of bells, big and little, alighted one fine Easter morning pealing merrily.

As for Frère Gaucher, that poor lay brother whose clownishness had so amused the chapter, he was no more heard of in the convent. Henceforth they knew only the Reverend Père Gaucher, the man of intellect and of great learning, who lived completely isolated from the many and trifling occupations of the cloister, and shut himself up all day in his distillery, while thirty monks scoured the mountain in search of fragrant herbs for him. This distillery, into which no one, not even the prior, had the right to enter, was an old, abandoned chapel, at the very end of the canon's garden. The simplicity of the good fathers had made it something mysterious and terrible; and if by chance a bold and curious young monk, clinging to the climbing vines, reached the rose-window over the door he would slip down hastily, frightened by the sight of Père Gaucher, with his wizard's beard, leaning over his furnaces, hydrometer in hand, and surrounded by retorts of rose-colored sandstone, gigantic alembics, crystal worms, and a whole weird apparatus which shone as if bewitched in the red light of the windows.

At nightfall, when the last angelus rang, the door of this abode of mystery would be opened cautiously, and the reverend father would betake himself to the church for the evening service. What a reception they gave him whenever he walked through the monastery! The brothers would form a lane for him as he passed and whisper:

"Hush, he has the secret."

The treasurer would follow him and speak to him in an undertone. Amidst all this adulation the father would walk on, mopping his brow, with his broad three-cornered hat on

412 Famous European Short Stories

the back of his head like an aureole, looking about him complacently at the large courts planted with orange trees, the blue roofs on which turned new weather-cocks, and, in the dazzlingly white cloister, between the elegant, florid columns, the canons clad in new robes, filing two and two with tranquil mien.

"It is to me that they owe it all!" the reverend father would tell himself; and each time this thought would bring a rush of pride.

The poor man was well punished for it. You will see how.

Just fancy that one evening, during service, he arrived at the church in a state of extraordinary excitement,—red, out of breath, with his cowl awry, and so agitated that in taking holy-water he wet his sleeve to the elbow. They thought at first that it was embarrassment at arriving late; but when they saw him make low obeisances to the organ and the pulpit instead of to the high altar, cross the church-like a whirlwind, and wander about the choir for five minutes in search of his stall, and then, when seated, bow right and left with a maudlin smile, a murmur of astonishment ran through the three naves. They whispered from breviary to breviary,—

"What is the matter with our Père Gaucher? What is the matter with our Père Gaucher?"

Twice did the prior impatiently beat upon the pavement with his crosier to command a silence. Above, in the choir, the Psalms still went on, but the responses lacked enthusiasm.

Suddenly, in the very midst of the Ave Verum, our Père Gaucher suddenly sits back in his stall, and sings in a mighty voice,—

Dans Paris il y a un Pere blanc, Patatin, patatan, tarabin, taraban.

There is general consternation. Every one rises. They cry,—

"Take him out! He is possessed!"

The canons cross themselves. The abbot's crosier keeps up a terrible clatter. But Père Gaucher neither sees nor hears anything; and two lusty monks are obliged to drag him out by the small choir door, struggling like one exorcised, and continuing his patatins and his tarabans louder than ever.

The next morning at daybreak the unhappy father was on his knees in the prior's oratory, saying his mea culpa with a torrent of tears.

"It is the elixir, Reverend Father, it is the elixir which took me by surprise," said he, beating his breast; and seeing him so wretched and repentant, the good prior was quite moved himself.

"Come, come, Père Gaucher, calm yourself; this will all dry up like dew in the sunshine. After all, the scandal was not so serious as you think. It is true that the song was rather—hum! hum! Well we must hope that the novices did not hear it. And now tell me how it happened. It was in trying the elixir, was it not? Your hand was a little too heavy. Yes, yes, I understand. You are like brother Schwartz, who invented gunpowder,—the victim of your own invention. Tell me, my good friend, is it absolutely necessary for you to try this terrible elixir upon yourself?"

"Unfortunately, yes, Monseigneur, the test gives me the strength and degree of the alcohol; but for the finish, the velvet, I can trust only to my tongue."

"Ah, very well. But one thing more, when you taste the elixir in this way, by necessity, does it seem to you good? Do you enjoy it?"

"Alas! yes," said the unfortunate father, growing very red. "For the last two evenings it has seemed to have such a flavor, such an aroma! It is certainly the devil who has played me this trick; and therefore I am firmly resolved henceforth to use only the test. So much the worse if the liqueur is not fine enough, if it does not pearl—"

"Oh, Heaven forbid!" interrupted the prior hastily. "We must not risk displeasing our customers. All that you have to do, now that you are warned, is to be on your guard. Come,

414 Famous European Short Stories

how much do you need to make sure. Fifteen, or twenty drops, eh! Let us say twenty drops. Besides, in order to prevent accidents, I will excuse you from coming to chapel hereafter. You can read the evening service in the distillery. And now, go in peace, Reverend Father, and above all count your drops."

Alas! it was in vain that the poor father counted his drops;

the devil had hold of him and never let go.

They were singular services that the distillery witnessed! During the day all went well. The father was calm enough; he prepared his retorts and alembics, carefully selected his herbs,—all the herbs of Provence, fine, gray, serrated, saturated with perfume and sunshine. But in the evenings, when the simples were infused, and the elixir was cooling in great pans of red copper, then the poor man's martyrdom would begin.

"Seventeen-eighteen-nineteen-twenty!"

The drops would fall from the graduator into the silver goblet. The father would swallow these twenty at a gulp, almost without pleasure. It was only for the twenty-first that he longed. Oh, that one-and-twentieth drop! Then, to escape from the temptation, he would go and kneel at the other end of the laboratory and plunge into his prayers. But from the still warm liqueur there would rise a little mist laden with aromatic odours which came and played about him, and in spite of himself drew him back to the pans. The liqueur was of a fine golden green. Bending over it, with open nostrils, the father would stir it gently, and in the little flashes which shone against the emerald background he seemed to see Aunt Bégon's eyes, laughing and sparkling as they looked at him.

"Come, one drop more!"

And, from drop to drop, the unfortunate man would end by having his goblet filled to the brim. Then, at the end of his strength, he would sink into a large easy-chair and with half-closed eyes lazily sip his sin, murmuring to himself with delicious remorse.—

"Ah! I am damning myself, I am damning myself!"

The most terrible part of it was that in the depths of this diabolical elixir he would find, by some strange witch-craft, all Aunt Bégon's dreadful songs: Ce sont trois petites commeres qui parlent de faire un banquet: or Bergerette de Maitre Andre s'en va-t-au bois seulette; and invariably the famous one about the White Fathers,—Patatin, patatan.

Fancy his embarrassment the next morning when those who occupied the neighboring cells would say to him,—

"Ah, ha! Père Gaucher, so you had cicadae in your head last night when you went to sleep!"

Then there would be tears, despair, fasting, the hair shirt, and the scourge. But nothing could prevail against the demon of the elixir; and every evening, at the same hour, the poor father would be again possessed.

During this time orders were fairly showered upon the abbey like a benediction. They came from Nimes, from Aix, from Avignon, from Marseilles. Day by day the convent took on more the air of a manufactory. There were packing brothers and labelling brothers, brothers for writing and brothers for carting. The service of God may have lost the tolling of a bell here and there; but the poor of the neighborhood lost nothing by it, I warrant you.

Well, one fine Sunday morning, while the treasurer was reading to the assembled chapter his inventory for the close of the year, and the good canons were listening with glittering eyes and smiling lips, Père Gaucher suddenly rushed into the midst of the conference crying.—

"That ends it! I will make no more. Give me back my cows—"

"What is the matter, Père Gaucher?" asked the prior, who suspected what was in the wind.

"What is the matter, Reverend Father? The matter is that I am preparing for myself a nice eternity of flames and pitchforks. The matter is that I am drinking,—that I am drinking like a fish."

"But I told you to count your drops."

416 Famous European Short Stories

"Ah, yes, count my drops! It is by goblets that I should have to count now. Yes, Reverend Father, I have reached that point; three flasks an evening. You can understand that this cannot go on. Therefore let you who like make your elixir. May the fire of God burn me if I will have anything more to do with it."

As you can fancy, the chapter was not smiling now.

"But you will ruin us, wretched man!" cried the treasurer, brandishing his ledger.

"Do you prefer to see me damned?"

Then the prior rose.

"Reverend Fathers," said he, stretching forth his white hand on which glistened the pastoral ring, "there is a way of arranging everything. It is in the evening, is it not, my dear son, that the demon tempts you?"

"Yes, regularly every evening. Consequently, now when I see evening approach, I sweat, saving your presence, from hand to foot, like Capitou's ass when he saw the saddle coming."

"Well, take heart! Every evening hereafter, at service, we will recite for you the orison of Saint Augustine, to which plenary indulgence is attached. With that, no matter what happens, you are safe. It is absolution during the sin."

"Oh! very well then; thank you, Reverend Father."

And without asking for anything more, Père Gaucher went back to his alembics as light as a swallow.

And in fact, from that time on, every evening after complines the officiating priest never failed to say,—

"Let us pray for poor Père Gaucher, who is sacrificing his soul to the interests of the community. Oremus Domine."

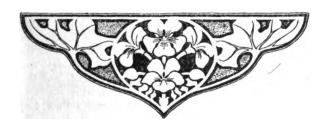
And while over all these white cowls, prostrate in the shadow of the nave, the orison rang quivering like a little breeze over snow, at the other end of the convent, behind the flaming windows of the distillery, Père Gaucher could be heard, singing at the top of his voice,—

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Dans Paris il y a un Pere Blanc, Patatin, patatan, taraban, tarabin; Dans Paris il y a un Pere Blanc Qui fait danser des moinettes, Trin, trin, trin, dans un jardin, Qui fait danser, etc.

Here the good curé stopped, filled with terror.

"Good heavens! Suppose my parishioners should hear me!"





Admiral De Ruyter

[The following selection is taken from "Michael Adrianson de Ruyter" in "Naval Heroes of Holland," by J. A. Mets, published by the Abbey Press, New York. It tells in stirring fashion the greatest exploits of this, the greatest of naval fighters, a man who besides being a great sailor and commander was remarkable for many admirable qualities as a man.]

On the first of June, 1666, he [De Ruyter] set out with his fleet to enter upon the greatest battle of his life and the hottest contest ever fought out upon the hoary sea, one that lasted no less than four entire days. His force numbered eighty-five men-of-war, nine fireships, and four swift sailing yachts to carry orders to the different parts of the fleet when necessary. Some of the ships were the heaviest and strongest ever sent out from Holland. De Ruyter's flagship, the Seven Provinces, and one other carried eighty guns, while that of Cornelis Tromp was armed with eighty-two guns. Ten others carried from seventy to seventy-six, and twenty-two were each pierced for sixty guns. The English fleet, commanded by Monk, Duke of Albemarle, numbered in all about eighty-seven men-of-war and eight fireships. Several of the former, however, were far stronger, both in guns and men, than any under the com-Among these was the Sovereign, mounting mand of De Ruyter. 100 guns and manned with an equipment of 700 men, and the Royal Prince, carrying ninety-two guns and 620 men, while the two largest of the Dutch fleet were manned respectively with only 475 and 450 sailors and marines.

It was on the eleventh of June that the curtain rose to the most terrific spectacle that ever had been witnessed on any sea. De Ruyter's fleet was lying at anchor between the North Foreland and the Flemish coast. The admiral-in-chief commanded the center, Cornelis Tromp the right, and John Evertsen the left wing. About noon Monk and his fleet hove in sight. At once De Ruyter, according to his custom, signalled the order for prayer. On every ship in the fleet the men knelt down, as the chaplains prayed for strength and courage for the living, victory for the fatherland, and pardon and grace for all who should give their lives for the right.

Then a hearty meal was served to the men, and, as a special favor, each received a glass of wine. Three ships' bells rang through the entire fleet, the trumpets gave the signal to charge, and the mighty sea-monsters rushed to the bloody fray. The conflict opened with characteristic fury on both sides and never slackened except only when the night cast its thick mantle between the combatants and compelled them to rest. This was repeated for three days. At the close of the third day the English, having lost a number of vessels while others had been utterly disabled, began to retire. The advantage so far was with De Ruyter, and if he had been free to follow it up at once, there is no doubt that Monk would have sustained a crushing defeat. But with the dawn of the fourth day another English fleet appeared of twenty-five ships under the command of Prince Rupert. Most perilous now was the prospect of the Dutch fleet. For, after all the damage sustained in the preceding three days, it was in no proper condition to renew the contest with the enemy so strongly reinforced by a fleet of fresh vessels. But De Ruyter's exalted heroism inspired his entire fleet; officers and men, from the highest to the lowest were determined to conquer or die. Once more the thousands of cannon opened their mouths and thundered their loud defiance at each other; once more countless missiles filled the air and went crashing through the oaken bulwarks, tearing through the tarred rigging and dealing death and destruction on every side. The heavens were lurid with the constant lightnings that flamed forth from the iron-jawed dogs of war, while the tumult of the elements was lost in the ceaseless roar of the guns and the cries and shrieks of the wounded and The gods of sea and air seemed to have retreated into their caverns, awe-struck and mute, affrighted by the direful clashing of these human Titans. Surely no famed naval battle of Greece or Carthage ever equalled this. But ere the sun dipped under the western rim of the horizon the fortune of war was decided in favor of De Ruyter, and the Duke of Albemarle was compelled to make for his own ports with the remnants of his fleet. Twenty-three of his ships had been sunk, destroyed or captured, six thousand of his brave men had been slain, and three thousand were carried off captives. The greatest loss to England, however, was that of three of her vice-admirals, of whom Berkeley and Mings had been killed and George Ascue was a prisoner. In the surrender of the latter's ship to that of De Ruyter, after a terrific and obstinate fight, William Van der Velde, a noted marine painter of that day, bore a conspicuous part. He was on board of De Ruyter's flagship to witness the battle and thus to secure a subject for painting. He was sitting in the cross-trees, sketching the awful spectacle, when the order was given by De Ruyter to

board. Van der Velde hurried down the mast, deposited his drawing material in the nearest cabin, and rushed with the crew on board of Ascue's ship. When the desperate hand-to-hand fight was at its hottest, the artist climbed up the mizzenmast with the agility of a common seaman, hauled down the admiral's flag, slid down the shrouds, with his trophy waving in his hand, and passed it over to De Ruyter. As he did so he said, "With this I want to pay for my board and lodging." In the melee the heroic deed of the artist seems to have been unnoticed by the English officers or sailors so that they were not aware that their flag was hauled down till the daring painter had already reached his victorious countrymen.

On the part of the Dutch the loss consisted of only four ships and two thousand men all told. No wonder that the hero who began the battle with prayer was ready to pour out his heart in fervent gratitude to God for the great victory achieved. And so far was he from taking any credit to himself for what had been accomplished, that, when one of his country's poets sang of his triumph in splendid song, De Ruyter said, "If anything great has been done, the glory must be given to God alone." Moved by the same spirit the government proclaimed a universal day of thanksgiving throughout the land to give praise to the Most High for the victory so signally obtained and to implore the divine aid for the future. Seldom was such a proclamation more faithfully and fully obeyed; in every city, village, and hamlet all feet were turned toward the sanctuaries, in every house of worship the voices of the people arose in grateful homage. The evening of that day was spent in every exhibition of joy at the memorable achievement; from every steeple the gay bells gave voice to the jubilant feelings of the multitude; bonfires lighted the sky from every street and field; each town vied with the other in the splendor of its fireworks.

As adversity often brings out the nobility of a great character much more fully than prosperity, so frequently the virtues of a hero are rendered less conspicuous by victory than by defeat. Of this De Ruyter on one occasion gave a notable example. On the fourth of August of this same year, and thus less than two months after the last battle, the fleets of the rival nations met again in the same neighborhood, off the North Foreland. In this it seemed as if friend and foe conspired for the destruction of the great hero. The English bent all their energies to crush De Ruyter, and, as if to make his utter overthrow the more certain, Cornelis Tromp, who commanded the rear division of the Dutch fleet, shamefully deserted his chief. The cause of this lay not in any lack of courage on the part of Tromp, but in jealousy and envy, those twin imps of evil that had wrought so much woe in this world. Tromp had claimed that De Ruyter had been promoted over himself and others

who had a prior claim to the position of the chief command of the Dutch navies, and he now allowed his jealous spite to overcome his sense of duty and honor, and left his chief to bear the brunt of the battle almost alone. The result was that what would undoubtedly have been another brilliant victory was turned into a costly defeat. And yet it was not an ignominious one, for even in this De Ruyter crowned himself with honor and glory. To this the King of France, Louis XIV, bore witness by presenting De Ruyter, on his return home, through Count d'Estrades, Louis's envoy extraordinary at The Hague, with the order of St. Michael, the oldest in the kingdom, and with the king's own portrait on gold enamel and surrounded with three rows of diamonds. With this a letter was sent to d'Estrades from the king, in which he said that he had learned from some Frenchmen who were present with De Ruyter in this battle that the admiral had performed deeds that seemed to surpass human powers; that at one time he had sustained with only eight of his own ships the attack of twenty-two of the largest English vessels and two of their admirals, and that they regarded his retreat a greater proof of his consummate skill than if he had gained the battle. His country, too, gave full recognition of the great services he rendered even in this battle. Amsterdam presented him with a magnificent sword with a hilt of gold, and Rotterdam with a splendid silver-gilt ewer, while his praises were uttered by all honest tongues throughout the land. His fleet had been defeated, indeed, yet his surpassing courage and skill had never been more fully exhibited than in the masterly way in which he drew out of the battle and brought his ships into safe harbor. Even Hume acknowledges that the greatest victory could not have given De Ruyter greater fame than this retreat.

In June of the following year, 1667, De Ruyter had another fleet ready with which to meet the boastful foe. So rapid were the preparations of those maritime nations in those days. And now he performed a feat which never before nor since, from the time that England became a naval power, was attempted. After their victory of the previous year the English fleet wantonly burned some defenceless villages on the coast of Holland. For this outrage De Ruyter determined to punish them. But he aimed not at harmless towns; he meant to send terror to the very heart of England by sailing up the river on which her proudest and largest city was situated, and to make the power of the Republic felt even there.

On the 16th of June De Ruyter reached the English coast with a fleet of sixty war vessels and fourteen fireships. His instructions were to sail up the Thames and Medway with as many ships as those streams would allow and destroy or capture whatever English vessels should be found there, and to burn and otherwise render useless whatever royal storehouses of naval provisions and ammu-

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nition might be found at Chatham. It was not until the 22d that the arrangements for the great exploit were perfected. A small squadron of the lighter vessels with some fireships were sent up the Medway to attack Fort Sheerness. This was armed with fifteen guns; but, after a bombardment of an hour and a half, its defenders deserted their stronghold and left it in possession of their daring assailants. The cannons were brought on board of De Ruyter's ships and the fort dismantled. This done, they ascended the river toward Chatham, the chief naval depot of England. Some distance up the river stood Upnor Castle, commanding the stream. Before this could be reached, however, a formidable obstacle had to be passed. A number of vessels had hastily been sunk and a massive chain, running on pulleys over floating rafts, had been stretched across the river. Above this chain lay several huge men-of-war, while both shores were planted with cannon. If ever a place had been made impassable, surely this seemed to be so. But all these obstacles only seemed to strengthen the determination of the Hollanders. As the channel allowed of only one vessel at a time to ascend the river, a volunteer was called for to lead the way and open a passage. This was eagerly answered by Captain John Van Brakel, who for some insubordination was at this time under arrest. Though his ship was one of the lightest equipped in the fleet, but a swift sailer, he begged permission to take the advance. His request was instantly granted; he was released from confinement and reinstated in command of his vessel. He at once ordered all sail to be set, passed his compatriots that were ahead of him, and, without firing a gun, went through the terrible hail of shot that rained upon him from the hostile ships and batteries, and carried his ship clear over the chain. Here he engaged the nearest English frigate, the Unity, gave it one terrible broadside, and boarded and captured it almost in a moment. His loss in the entire exploit was only two or three wounded. Commodore John Van den Ryn followed him in the Pro Patria, which dashed with such force at the chain that it broke in two and thus made a clear passage for the rest of his squadron. Of the men-of-war lying on the other side of the chain three of the largest were burned, some fled up the river, while one, the Royal Charles, carrying 100 guns, was captured and sent to Holland. Now the way was clear to Upnor Castle. Here matters were conducted with the same impetuosity and rapidity. The guns of the castle were silenced and the defenders of the supporting batteries were driven from their guns and put to flight. Of the four menof-war that were lying under the guns of the castle only one escaped, the other three being given to the flames. The crews of all those seemed to have been seized with a panic, as officers and all shamefully deserted their ships. Their cowardice was offset, how-



Admiral De Ruyter, the greatest of Dutch Sea Captains (1607-1676). From the Painting by Ferdinand Bol.



The Four Davs' Battle between the Dutch and English Fleers, June 11-14, 1666

ever, by at least one of the officers. The captain of the Royal Oak, one of those that were destroyed, a Scotchman by the name of Douglas, refused to leave his ship, though he, too, could easily have saved himself. He preferred to perish in the flames of his burning ship, saying, "It has never been known that a Douglas left his post without leave."

In the whole affair the English lost nine of their largest ships, together with a great number of dead and wounded, and all under the very eyes of Monk and Prince Rupert. De Ruyter's loss was

reckoned at barely fifty men and a few boats.

As on wings of the wind the news spread to London, filling the city with consternation. The inhabitants hurridedly prepared for flight, expecting nothing less than that the Dutch fleet would sail up the river and lay their great and rich capital in ashes. De Ruyter, however, had no such intention. All that he had been sent out for had been accomplished, and, this done, he returned home.

A singular Providence seemed to favor the great enterprise both at its inception and at its close. At the start, a strong tide and favoring breeze from the east carried the fleet up the river, while, just as the feat was accomplished, the tide and wind turned and carried the daring Hollanders with equal rapidity out to the remainder of the fleet at the river's mouth. This exploit compelled Charles the Second to end the war with Holland at that time. A treaty of peace between the two countries was signed at the city of Breda on the 24th of the succeeding August.

A notable and noble tribute to the enduring fame of the great hero was given when the Emperor of Germany, on the occasion of his visit to Amsterdam in 1801, went personally to the New Church and laid a wreath on his tomb; and then kneeled down and spent some moments as if in silent prayer. In 1841 a bronze statue was erected to his honor in his native city Flushing, and was placed on an open space quite near the spot from which he made his first attempt to become a sailor. It was unveiled and solemnly dedicated in the presence of King William the Second and his suite. This was more recently removed and placed on the boulevard laid out on the old sea-wall, where it was rededicated in the presence of the queen-mother and Princess Wilhelmina, now the beloved queen of the Netherlands. The statue now faces and looks down from its lofty position upon the turbulent waters of the North Sea that he had so often braved and that so often had been witness to his triumphs.

Shortly after his death letters came from the Court of Spain addressed to De Ruyter which informed him that the Spanish King had bestowed a dukedom upon him with an annual revenue of two thousand ducats. As death had made such honors forever useless

to the great man, the title, its privileges and emoluments were conferred upon his son, Captain Engel De Ruyter, who, however, modestly requested that it might be changed to a barony.

Thus the wild and good-for-nothing boy of the Flushing ropewalk had risen to the highest place and fame in the most dangerous, the most laborious, and yet one of the most honorable professions that men can follow; had raised his family from the most obscure to the most exalted social position; had rescued his country from impending ruin and brought to her undying renown.

The surpassing excellence of the great man deserves a brief summing up of his character. Unpromising as was his boyhood, there was scarcely a virtue but adorned his manhood. Truth, honor, diligence, zeal, fidelity, courage, daring, endurance, generosity, humility, temperance, purity, patriotism, godliness—such was the galaxy of graces that ennobled him like jewelled stars in a diadem. And for this let us, as he himself ever did, magnify the grace of God which alone had made all this possible.

That the bold and daring lad should have become a mighty man of war is not so surprising; but that the uncontrollable scape-grace should have risen to such eminence as that of commander-in-chief of all the fleets of Holland; that the ignoramus should have become master of eight languages; and, still more, that the good-for-naught, as all had deemed him, should have become a Christian of exalted piety,—this is cause for wonder indeed.

We close this sketch of the great seaman with the testimony of three witnesses from among the people against whom he fought most frequently and over whose fleets he gained such brilliant victories. His English biographer says, "He was the most upright man, the most devout and pious Christian, the bravest, wisest, and most experienced leader, so good and patriotic a citizen of his country that he is justly regarded by all posterity as the ornament of his age, a great naval hero, and a most redoubtable warrior." Another English writer, quoting the words of Richter that, though many historians assert De Ruyter to be the greatest naval hero that ever lived, yet Du Quesne vanquished him, says, "To institute a comparison between the two is to compare a snuffy candle with a brilliant lamp." And when on August 27, 1816, the English and Dutch fleets under Lord Exmouth and Baron Van de Capelle had given the Dey of Algiers a severe drubbing, Lord Exmouth gave a feast on board of his flagship to the officers of the allied fleet. drank first to the peace and prosperity of the two nations; then lifting his goblet again, he drank to the memory of De Ruyter, and after that to the memory of Nelson, adding, "I drink first to the memory of De Ruyter because he is so much older and greater than Nelson."

The lines placed under a likeness of the great admiral exhibited in every shop window in Holland after his last victory over the combined English and French fleets may fittingly complete our tribute to the man:

"Behold the hero! Holland's strong right hand, The savior of the imperilled fatherland, Who three times forced two kingdoms in one year To strike the flag, and filled their lands with fear. The fleet's true soul, the arm by which God wrought The victory that peace and honor brought."

Student Life in Bonn: The Impressions of an American Student

By Paul Vincent Harper.

THE University of Bonn is not as well known to American students as Heidelberg or Berlin, or, indeed, many other German universities; you can easily pass two or more months there without meeting an American. In fact in the summer semester of 1908 there were only six of us registered as students—and we all fled from one another at sight because we were in Germany for German. At our one reunion on the Fourth of July, we all agreed that Bonn was an ideal place for German, for one can with exceptional ease fall in with German life in all its forms.

It is a pretty little town and very aristocratic, having in its roll of "Burger" eighty millionaires, the Kaiser's sister, and the Royal family during their student life. Bonn is a small town, but just large enough not to be monotonous. There are innumerable little things to do in the hour or half hour before mealtime when you are tired of studying German, and have no homelike corner in which to glance over a magazine. You can swim in the Rhine, or in a beautiful

tank by the University. You can walk up the famous Coblenzer Strasse looking among the shrubbery for the "Villas on the Rhine." You can get your hair cut by the same barber who cuts the Prince's hair. Or you can look at the shop windows for presents for the people at home.

An electric car runs into Cologne in forty minutes, to the opera or the theater. You can do a little sight-seeing to keep in practice, and pick out the famous places to show the ever expected and unexpected friend. Bonn itself lies on the Rhine plain just as it winds out from among the hills. The famous old Drachenfels and the Seven Mountains, the Eifel—the joy of the German tramper, are within half an hour. In short Bonn offers itself as a small university town, Cologne as a large city, and one of the best walking tour districts in Germany all in one.

The life there is the characteristic hospitable, lazy Rhineland life. Living is cheap; time is plentiful; amusements are many. The first impression you receive of the town is, "How do all the eating places do business?" And yet despite their number, in the afternoon between five and eight o'clock, it is really difficult to find a table to yourself. Little signs, "stammtisch," reserved table, stand in every corner. When this sign is a continuous, twisting combination of letters written in gold on a miniature banner that is held aloft by a bronze soldier with drawn sword, the table is reserved for a student club. They come in in groups of two or three, laughing and boisterous; colored caps on their heads, and colored bands showing across their highly buttoned vests; white canes swinging in their hands, and they drink many liters of beer. If the sign is less gaudy, a mere card, the table is reserved for a group of crooked backed old cronies who lisp and grumble into their glasses. Or it may be for a club of business men.

I was invited to one of these latter through a high-school teacher who was giving me lessons. We sat around a corner for two and a half hours, a crowd composed of two lawyers, a very fat architect, a fatter business man, a teacher, two doctors, and an old "corps" man whose face and shaved head

were striped with red and white scars. Before I left them the lawyer had invited me to a Bowling Club on Tuesday evening; the architect, to go to a concert on Thursday; someone else, to make an all day trip with the Eifel Verein on Sunday; and the old "corps" man to see a duel. All invited me to come around "whenever I could not find anybody else to drink my beer with." But the bowling club was but an excuse to drink beer. The concert was more or less likewise. The tour in the Eifel had its goal in a big dinner and a cool bottle of Mosel wine. The duel alone seemed to be there for itself. That is the German of it.

This life in the neat little restaurants, which are invariably hung with pictures of the Kaiser and of Bismarck, is most interesting, especially the life of the students. They drink glass after glass of beer, munching "schnittchen" between the sips. The older men make the poor freshmen drink beyond themselves, and they obey as if the customs and precedents were the law of the land. They laugh, sing, and shout over the rules of the beer "comment." Every little while one of them stops his laughing, rises, swings off his cap, and holding it at arm's length, drinks a "prosit" to an elderly acquaintance at the next table, who bobs his head and takes a sip of his beer in acknowledgment.

I entered the University as a regular student; and thereafter received all my bills, and signed my name "for statistical purposes" in all the libraries, with the title "Herr stud-phil." So matriculated, I moved along in line for three hours, signing books, giving police descriptions and family history. Then all the "Fuchse"—Freshmen—were crowded into a large parlor-like room where the Rector made a long speech, and then presented us in alphabetical order with a handshake of greeting and a student's card. This card is one of the student's most precious possessions. Through it he can draw books from the library; he is admitted to various dances and city concerts; he gets tickets at half price for the opera and state theater in Cologne; and he can come home howling and singing grand opera at any time of the early morning without

being disturbed in his revels by the police. If he really becomes too noisy, or does something else besides singing and shouting, the police do stop him, get his name and address from the card, and report him to the authorities. He is fined a few marks, but the affair is carried on by mail. The student receives a letter stating that he has been fined, and that he must pay on a certain day.

One day six students drove around the market place all in one carriage, singing and drinking beer. One of them was trying to play a cornet; but that was too much for the policeman. The students had gone beyond their privilege of singing. He tried to stop them but they drove on. Then he attempted to jump into the carriage, succeeding only, however, in climbing up on the step. Meanwhile the beer that the students were drinking had splashed over his uniform and his trousers had rubbed up against the carriage wheels. He finally managed to get the student's name as Hans Muller, which is as common as John Smith or Sam Jones. Of course, he didn't believe it; but after insisting on seeing the fellow's card, he found to the laughter of the students that it was correct. They then drove on, pushing the policeman off as he was telling them that they could sing, but they "must not blow the horn." This is called "Akademische Freiheit," the password of university life.

In general the student life in Bonn is a great deal different from that in America. In the first place, there is absolutely no university spirit. Of the nearly four thousand students in Bonn, I have seen only three hundred together at one time, in the Bismarck procession, which is, if anything; the student affair of the semester. There are no dormitories; and so the students rent rooms with breakfast, all through the town. If they belong to an organization of any kind, they eat together at rooms. In the evening, they either eat in their rooms or in the restaurants. Moreover, there is no fixed course of study; no required attendance. A student has to go to class only once at the beginning of the semester to get his book signed by the professor, and once at the end. There is only one examination in the whole university course,

the doctor's examination at the end. Some of the students have so much interest in their work that they wander from one university to another, working under the various men in their line. The "corps" student's interest is all taken up in his corps and he has little left for studies or university. There are no classes; so each man keeps his own record of semesters. And especially around the Kneipe table is this carefully inquired after to see who has precedence in the drinking customs. There was a crew that had several races, not, however, as a university crew, but as a rowing club. There was a football team, not representing the university, but a football Verein. The German interest in athletics is not at all small, especially if you call duelling athletics; but the spirit is all within the university. There are a hundred small factions. For the university spirit in our sense of the word, there is no room or need.

The Germans have their "grinds" and their blind "grinds" as well as we; but they have a larger middle class that should not be called "grinds" but hard students. This presents a very fine man. He has a great interest in his work that carries him, as I have mentioned, free from sentiment to many different universities. He reads very widely in national and current events. He likes Ibsen. He will give up anything to hear his favorite operas. No hill is too high for him to climb, no matter how tired he is, to get a pretty view. He will travel a hundred miles to visit an art gallery or a museum. He wants to learn from everything he comes in contact with. But he also takes his pleasure as pleasure, else he would be no true German. He either belongs to some literary circle or has a group of friends with whom he drinks coffee and plays skat every afternoon after dinner. Every Sunday he takes walking tours through the Eifel or the hills. He and his friends drink a "Bowle" together, and sometimes hold unofficial "Kneipes." When it is warm of an afternoon, two or three walk down to where the little river Sieg flows into the Rhine, strip and go in swimming in true American style. He frequently goes to one of the dance halls where only students are admitted through their cards, to keep up the tone of the

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company, and dances indiscriminately or discriminately with the boarding school girls. Although he does do a great deal of work, he says, "Oh well! you can't do much when the fellows are around. You must wait till vacation." Perhaps this is the reason that they have almost six months vacation every year in Germany. This student interprets his "Akademische Freiheit" as freedom, independence of work and opinion—and he represents comparatively a large class in the university. If he has any one fault, however, it is that he becomes too independent, that he does not give proper allowance to other people's opinion, which make him sometimes rather disagreeable. But this may be a good fault.

But the type of student that is known as the German student, that is no doubt more representative, at any rate more numerous, is the one that interprets "Akademische Freiheit" as freedom of student life. These are students of the type of the "corps" student. There are three grades of student organizations: originally there were the old corps; later came the Burschenschaften and the Landsmannschaften; then the Turnerschaften, which class includes also singing clubs, rowing clubs, etc.

Among the "corps" students are the fashion plates—and the colored caps, the ribbons, and the scars offer good material for artistic workmanship. They dress in tight fitting trousers, apparently to look thin because the Crown Prince is thin. They carry white canes, and wear monocles most deftly. A face, no matter how young, without a mustache is a rarity. They never carry umbrellas because the officers do not.

The colored caps on the wall around the lecture hall are shamelessly few. Their interest is far from study. These are the men who do the duelling. The groups of patched and bandaged fellows you meet every day on the street gives witness to the fact that duelling is by no means decreasing although the Catholic Corps and certain others forbid it. Of this sort was the only form of inter-university sport I heard of, a series of duels fought between a corps in Heidelberg and one in Bonn. One corps will sometimes fight all day long,

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running off fifteen or sixteen duels, almost every member having a turn at it. The Freshman, as a rule, at first receives only two colors, as a pledge. Then for a semester he is taught to fence and to carry himself as a "corps" man. Before he can carry the third color of his club, he must have fought and handled himself well in one or more duels. During this first semester's training to "carry himself as a 'corps' man" besides learning the rules of fighting and honor, he also learns to drink an enormous amount of beer. He subjects himself absolutely to a rigid set of customs; he stays up all hours of the night; he leaves all respect for his physical good behind in an attempt to harden himself to the wildest, severest sort of life. This is a criticism that you will hear just now very widespread in Germany regarding the "corps" student, although it does not apply so strongly to all of them. The duelling itself is not the serious point of objection; but it is the reckless life that accompanies the duelling. And yet there is something about the old traditions and jovial spirit of these corps that make you favor them.

This life naturally does not last indefinitely. A young student "lives" his two or three semesters, and then he either tires of it and stops; or goes on and becomes a total wreck. The wreck, a common sight, leads the laziest of lives. He sleeps till late. At noon he goes to an outdoor restaurant for dinner; sits there all afternoon half asleep over his beer; eats his supper without moving; and wakes up in time for a Kneipe at night. The changing of universities, however, saves a great many. When conditions have made it impossible to lead a reasonably quiet life, the student can go to another university and begin all over again.

This is a general view of the student life in Bonn. Whether it is, all in all, better than our American student life is hard to decide. You must experience both and then—"there is much to be said on both sides."

The German Kaiser

III. A French View of the Kaiser

By Maurice Leudet

THE Emperor of Germany was pleased recently to revive the famous saying of Napoleon III., "Empire is Peace." And William II. heaps kindnesses on us. In the course of his interviews with M. Jules Simon in Berlin, we are told that he did not spare his eulogiums on France, and the expression of his desire to live in harmony with her. Her arts, her literature, interest him. He professes to have a high idea of our army, and pays homage to the exceptional valor of our generals. He could find words full of emotion, I remember, when the Marshals Canrobert and MacMahon died. In words he is so sympathetic that a certain number of Frenchmen award him praises which are not given to him in his own country. A German who lives in Paris—an amiable and skeptical philosopher—said to me not long ago:

"I think it is his fine feathers which attract your countrymen when they praise our Emperor to the skies. He is in truth a soldier who looks well on horseback in the middle of his army. He adores uniform, and it becomes him marvelously. This is what takes the fancy of the crowd. With us, where, in spite of the victories we have won, we have less enthusiasm for these outward gifts of the Sovereign, the despotic ways of William II. increase every day the already large number of malcontents, whose votes are given only to those who dare to declare that they would have an end made of the existing regime-in other words, to the socialists. These malcontents are far from being disciples of Karl Marx; many of them are totally ignorant of the first principles of the author of 'Capital'; but they see in the Liebknect and the Bebel the necessary instruments for making a breach in that power which the Emperor more and more desires to make absolute.

I am not afraid to tell you that the middle classes in Germany who in no way hold 'subversive ideas,' as the fashionable phrase is in government spheres in Germany—are no less hostile at heart to the Emperor than the working classes; the elections of next year will give you striking proof of this."

The correspondent of a great journal of the other side of the Rhine cried, in the middle of a conversation which we were having on the subject of William II.:

"Our Emperor? . . . But he is the Emperor of the French . . . and we make you a present of him with the greatest pleasure."

The fact is that in Germany William II. is not so popular as we imagine here that he is.

Here he is discussed, but his ready wit, his originality, his quick-wittedness, interest even those who do not see in him a rival of Frederick II. or even of William I.

The Times of Monday, June 21, 1897, published a sensational correspondence of M. de Blowitz. It reported the declarations made by the Emperor William to a "very important person."

Before publishing them here I took pains to ascertain their authenticity. The correspondent of the *Times*, when questioned by me, replied thus:

"I assure you absolutely of the authenticity of the interview. The conversation took place with a Frenchman of very high position, and was faithfully reported. It was on the occasion of a private dinner and lasted a long time. The interlocutor was not a political man, but a savant, an openminded man and one knowing much of all Europe.

"I may as well add that the interview was quoted by all the German papers, and that no German official or officials have denied it."

Here are not the exact words of the Times, but the sense of those used by M. de Blowitz.

"William II. expressed his opinion on three points. 'I do not know,' he said—and really it is a quaint way of looking at things—'I do not know why the French are so angry with me. It was not I who brought about the existing state of things. It is a heritage I found, and I do not think that there can exist a being in the world, capable of thinking, who can reproach me for having accepted it. I have done nothing to aggravate a situation which was handed on to me, and of which, up to the present, I have contented myself with being a faithful and respectful guardian.

"'I think that even those who make the most outcry, if I were to ask them what they would advise me to do, could not advise me to do what they must feel themselves incapable of doing if they were in my place. And all the same they dislike me as if I had done it all myself, and they make all my efforts to ameliorate a situation, of which the amelioration would have the happiest results for both countries, useless.

"'I have endeavored to create a common action for the two countries on commercial and industrial grounds, and on economic grounds. But some have replied to me with the prejudiced determination of incapable men, and others with the disposition to sympathy of intelligent men, but who have neither the courage nor the necessary authority to bring things to a happy conclusion. In these circumstances one must let things take their course, and depend upon time to bring about solutions which one cannot foresee.

"'Yes, I have a great respect and admiration for the Pope Leo XIII., but it is his German partisans who prevent me from doing anything for him. Our Catholics are much more absolute than French Catholics. They only recognize one thing: the reëstablishment of the temporal power in all its former extent, so that it would be impossible for me either by will or deed to restore this former state of things; they would not only not accept any concessions from me, but they would accuse me of acknowledging what they call "spoliations," even while they accepted the concessions of those who.

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had despoiled them. . . . No, I do not see any present prospect of rivalries, and I am sure that everybody desires most sincerely to avoid them. But I am not so sure as to the future of Europe. I foresee a double danger for her. I am not afraid for her of the "yellow peril"; recent events have repelled that for some time to come. Nor do I fear the "red peril," because that rests on Utopia and on spoliation, and because the whole civilized world is resolved to unite in its efforts to combat it, and protect itself against its destructive action. But I fear on one side the danger of a certain invading and continued extension with which Europe is threatened by one of her races, armed with all the resources which civilization puts and will put at the service of her ambition; and on the other side I fear the intervention of the New World, which is beginning to develop appetites from which it has been up to now free, and which will before long wish to interfere in the affairs of the Old World and to meet half way the ambitions, always waking, which are stirring around us. This is what I fear, and this is why for my part I do not allow myself to be carried away by ambitious desires of troubling Europe, which would be only too readily attributed to me under the pretext of wishing to prevent me from troubling her."

One can see that it is always France which is the object of his liveliest desires. He wishes to draw her into his orbit. If he has not already succeeded, he counts on time, which often does bring about forgetfulness of injuries. He needs a France reconciled to Germany to preserve definitely for him the heritage which was left him, and also—and it is here that his ambition shows itself—to check a "certain invading and continued extension with which Europe is threatened by one of her races, armed with all the resources which civilization puts and will put at the service of her ambition." When this interview was published, there was but one voice in naming the enemy.

This enemy is evidently England. Nevertheless, Mr. de Blowitz assured me that the distinguished savant had declared that by this William II. had meant Russia. Without wishing

to throw any doubt on the perspicuity of the savant, we may be permitted, until further orders, to believe that the Emperor of Germany was alluding to England. William the Second's sentiments for that country have been long known. He showed them in a startling manner, in his famous telegram to the President of the Transvaal, Kruger, after the failure of the Jameson raid. Prince Bismarck succeeded in getting us into touble with Italy by letting us go to Tunis, and by having cleverly manoeuvred to back the colonial enterprises of France, particularly in Tonquin, in order to render our continental policy ineffective. William II. is obviously endeavoring now to embroil us with England. He is not ignorant that everywhere we are a little in rivalry with England, and that the establishment of England in Egypt, which seems to be permanent in spite of the most positive and most solemn assurances of the Queen's ministers, is a great difficulty, the greatest which separates us from our neighbors across the Channel. Then he puts before us in official journals the great advantage it would be to France to accept loyally the Treaty of Frankfort; it would secure to us, if needed, the effectual support of Germany in expelling the English from Egypt. William II. forgets to tell us that Germany has colonial ambitions; that she is not afraid of France on this ground, but that she is held in check in Africa by England, with whom she has already found herself in serious conflict; and that in reality, in encouraging us against Great Britain, she is seeking the friendship of France to serve German interests.

To those who have lived any time in Germany—and this is my case—it is absolutely certain that the German people would not permit him to abandon what his grandfather conquered. The victories of 1870 have left, deeply rooted in the masses, sentiments which are rocked as it were to the tune of the recital of our defeats and the glories of Germany.

Quite lately, just after the celebration of the alliance, when the Tsar and the President of the Republic had spoken of a peace based on right and equity, William, in a speech of

August 31st, at a State dinner, in the presence of the heir to the Duchy of Baden, uttered these words:

"Today's review does honor to the commander of the Eighth Corps. It depends on us to preserve in its integrity the work of the great Emperor and to defend it against all foreign claims and influence. I hope that every general, in all that concerns him, will endeavor to attain this end."

Here is a new and decisive answer, I think, to those who still delude themselves and believe in the possibility of a great dramatic scene, when William II. will reënter Paris and restore to us the keys of Strasbourg and Metz.

* * * *

William II., who in certain circles has been persistently eulogized for political wisdom and all the qualities of a statesman, has up to the present seen his designs singularly frustrated. Since he disembarrassed himself of Bismarck's tutelage, five principal facts have been produced.

- 1. Germany has lost her place as a preponderant power in Europe. Russia has taken her place.
 - 2. France has entered into an alliance with Russia.
 - 3. The Triple Alliance has almost ceased to exist.
 - 4. England has been made hostile to Germany.
- 5. The links between Russia and Germany have been snapped and have not been reunited.

The great English review, The Fortnightly, brought forward these five points in a clever study on "The Foreign Policy of the Emperor of Germany" which appeared in one of its numbers. Let us only hope that William II. will not contrive to renew the relation of his country with Russia, and drag all the continental powers into a conflict with England! Unless the Emperor of Germany succeeds in the master stroke,

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which would have its effect on France, it will not be long before the Prussian power and the German power succumb before the Franco-Russian alliance, with the moral or effective support of "Greater Britain."

The Fire at Chautauqua

At three o'clock on the morning of October 19, fire was discovered in the Colonnade building at Chautauqua, which housed, besides the postoffice and stores of the town, the Chautauqua Print Shop. Here the November number of the magazine was nearing completion.

After an unavailing struggle of four hours the entire building and contents were consumed. The loss is estimated at \$100,000, of which about half falls on the Institution and half on the tenants of the shops, etc. The Institution has \$25,000 insurance.

The magazine now in your hands is a reprint, made in Buffalo, seventy-five miles distant, of the edition destroyed. Slightly altered appearance and lateness of issue will be accounted for by this statement of facts. It is expected that the December number will be mailed on time.

The Colonnade will be rebuilt before next summer.

The German Emperor and Empress

The Aula Christi, Chautauqua, N. Y. The dedication of which has been

The Vesper Hour*

First Service in the Aula Christi, Chautauqua, New York,

August 17, 1908.

Conducted by Chancellor John H. Vincent.

THE first service in the Aula Christi, Hall of the Christ, at Chautauqua, N. Y., was conducted in the yet unfinished building one evening last summer. The beautiful edifice, the completion of which has been assured by the raising of a fund of \$10,000, will henceforth be the home and center of religious teaching at Chautauqua. The initial service, held shortly after the needed funds had been secured, marks the beginning of what promises to be a long period of the highest usefulness and significance in the religious life of Chautauqua.

A report of the service and Chancellor Vincent's brief statement of the purpose of the Hall of the Christ will be of interest to many Chautauquans. The Chancellor, in opening the service, said:

"It is very important that we should conduct this service promptly, and I call upon you all in the name of the Christ whom we serve, and in whose honor this place is to be dedicated, to engage in this service thoughtfully, reverently, earnestly; to sing these hymns and to join in this Responsive Service with devout spirit.

" 'Come, let us tune our loftiest songs,
And raise to Christ our joyful strains.' "

After the Responsive Reading, in which probably two thousand persons participated, Bishop Vincent said:

"The crown of the work at Chautauqua in architecture is the Aula Christi, 'The Hall of the Christ.' Here on the

^{*}The Vesper Hour, contributed to THE CHAUTAUQUAN each month by Chancellor Vincent, continues the ministries of Chautauqua's Vesper Service throughout the year.

heights, yonder the sloping sides of the hill, and beyond the Lake, beyond the Amphitheater, there (pointing) the Hall of Philosophy; here we place as our tribute to the source of our civilization and the ground of our hope for salvation, this beautiful temple. We have sought to do the best that architecture could do. We have been limited by the limitations, the necessary limitations, put upon us. We have good hope that in the years to come this building may be filled with reminders of the life, the character, the mission and the work of Jesus Christ in human history, and especially in our Christian civilization.

"It is the object of this Hall to promote profound reverence among worshippers. The American people, especially we Protestant Americans, are very much in danger of losing the benefit of reverent approach in our public service to the invisible God whom we worship. It behooves us to have a place of quiet, of reverence, for retreat, for meditation, for instruction in the things that relate to Jesus Christ, the author and finisher of our faith.

"We propose here, through classes for little children and older children and young people and adults and scholars, to study thoroughly the story of the life, the mission, the character of Jesus Christ as set forth in the Holy Scriptures. We propose here to study Christ in history, as he has affected the civilization of the ages. We propose here to study Christ as we raise the problems, social and political, of our civilization, which is a Christian civilization. And it is amazing to think how many problems would be solved in our social life, in our political life, if we were to make Jesus Christ the standard of character and of conduct, and the innermost source of character.

"It is to fulfil this mission that this Hall has been erected. But especially it is the mission of this Hall to foster the spiritual tone and habit; that we may think more closely and pray more reverently, and believe more implicitly, study the Word of God more thoroughly, and in our personal experience come to understand the mystery of his indwelling as he takes possession of the personality. We mourn when we think,—the best of you mourn when you think,—how lofty the ideals He

has breathed into your souls, and how low the standard of daily attainment and of daily conduct.

"It is hoped that in this Hall, through its suggestions, through its instructions, through the impressions that it makes, we shall come to covet a deeper spiritual life and be drawn personally nearer to Him who has the secret of everything that is good in human nature, that is good for human nature; where the Spirit of God lays hold of the consenting soul and the promise is fulfilled 'Whatsoever ye shall ask the Father in My name, He shall give it unto you.'

"It is a very easy thing for us when we study Christ, the mystery of Christ, to generalize in mere dogmatic statements and discussions. It is very easy when we study Christ for us to melt into moods of tenderness and emotional excitement for the time, and then to have a reaction come léaving us stranded, cold and selfish as we were before. God grant that through the years that are to come in this beautiful and sacred temple many an aching heart may find comfort in the living Christ; many a burdened heart have the assurance that sin is forgiven; many a perplexed heart find in Jesus Christ a guide amidst all the perplexities and anxieties of mortal life.

"I wish that in the spiritual heavens now encompassing us there might at this twilight hour, at this the dedication, or the beginning of the dedication, of this Hall,—I wish that here and now every one of us, from the man who speaks, from the men and women who sing, to the people who hear and who unite in singing,—I wish that tonight that we might personally say: 'O Living Christ, with all our unworthiness, with all our sins and unbelief, with all the failures of our ideals, with all the breaking of our vows, we turn to Thee and surrender ourselves to Thee for Thy guidance and Thy possession.'

"In the silence of this twilight hour, will you make this surrender, each soul as in the presence of the Most High. Whatever your theological views may be, do not wait to conform them to some other person's theological views. Take the highest that you have now and act on it, with a holy resolution; and lift a prayer to the infinite God whom you recognize and ask this grace.

"Oh, it would be a beautiful thing if, tonight, there might among the thousand or more people assembled here vows of surrender be made that would never be forgotten. Let us

pray.

"O God, our Father, who hast given to us Thy Son, Jesus Christ, and commanded us to worship him, from whom with the Son comes the Holy Ghost, that mystic Trinity, Three in One, Wisdom, Love and Power; by whose energies human souls may be transformed, evil habits broken, sin pardoned, peace taking the place of unrest, joy the place of fear and despair,—do Thou grant unto us at this time the abundant blessing of Thy grace, that we who are here present may surrender ourselves anew to Thy service.

"Bless us as parents that we may feel our responsibility and train our children to honor Him in whose name this house is built. Bless us as families that we may every day illustrate the Gospel which we profess. Bless us as citizens that we may be loyal to the nation and do all that we can for the building up of our race and the making of the world wiser and better. Take selfishness out of our hearts that leads us to think only of ourselves and care only for ourselves. And do Thou grant unto us at this time a new awakened sense of our social responsibility, that we may not only seek to be good neighbors, and not only be received into the heaven that is yonder, but able in our measure to transform the present into a heaven while we live on earth.

"For all Thy goodness which has guided us, and for all the gifts of Thy servants who have contributed to this good cause, we give Thee thanks. We pray for Thy continued grace in the continuance of our work, and crown it, O Lord, with the gift of Thy blessed Spirit. And in this calm and quiet evening hour, breathe upon every one of us and say, 'Receive the Holy Ghost.'

"Now unto Him who is able to do exceeding abundantly, above all that we ask or think, according to the power that worketh in us; unto Him be glory in the church, by Jesus Christ, throughout all ages, world without end. And may the grace of our Lord Jesus Christ be with you all. Amen."

igitized by GOOGLC

A Thanksgiving Litany

By Caroline Sheldon

For purple vintage, garnered harvest golden, Blessing of plenty in basket, field, and store, For bounties new and mercies known and olden, We thank Thee, Lord.

For peace that dwells serene along our borders,
For beckoning hope that gilds our pathway o'er,
For the Hand that guides, the Love that ever orders,
We praise Thee, Lord.

For wanderings long and far, for safe returning, For sound of kindred speech, for loves of home, For holy lives, fair beacons steady burning, We bless Thee, Lord.

For all of art's and nature's varied beauty,
For glowing window, towering spire, and dome,
For lettered leisure and stern call of duty,
We praise Thee, Lord.

And for the kindly work of pain and sorrow In depths, before unguessed, of heart and soul, While waiting tranquilly the unknown morrow, We thank Thee, Lord.



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THE SIFTING PROCESS.

Our studies for this month deal with a number of great men. Some of them are living today. If we find pleasure in analyzing the character of a man whose work is finished there is an even greater fascination in watching the career of one who is still playing his part. Such men as the Emperors of Austria and Germany and the King of Italy represent three strikingly different types, all of whom are confronted with similar problems. It will be worth our while to study carefully the personalities of these men while we watch the daily progress of events. The game of statecraft in modern Europe is often productive of surprises as the characters of rulers reveal themselves in all their human strength and weakness. As everyday people have to be molded by the discipline of small affairs, so it is interesting to note in the unfolding of history before our eyes how the men who lead have to take their share of the sifting process.



At the recent exercises of Opening Day, October 1st, at Chautauqua, referred to elsewhere, Mr. F. C. Bray, Managing Editor of The Chautauqua Press, gave a brief sketch of some

of his experiences in Europe last spring which was especially pertinent in connection with the readings of our current Modern European year:

"I have been on a Reading Journey in a peculiar sense, having taken a Reading Journey through the Reading Course ahead of you for the coming year. Indeed, in reading for the course I have probably taken more journeys than any one of you would be willing to take. In addition to that, I had the privilege of taking an actual journey, picking up, for example, more than half the illustrations in the current magazine. In working over the seven subjects—'Foundations of Modern Europe,' Seen in Germany,' Man and the Earth,' Studies in European Literature,' 'The Friendship of Nations,' A Reading Journey in Holland,' and 'Dutch Art and Artists,' one finds himself impressed with two facts,—first, the way in which the development of modern Europe is tied up with Napoleon; and, next, the predominance of Germany and the dominating figure of the Kaiser, the man whom Germans consider Heaven-sent and the French think crazy. In Bavaria it is difficult to find a post-card with the Kaiser's picture, for Bavarians call themselves Bavarians, not Germans—so varied in sentiment is the congeries of states that make up the German Empire."

Mr. Bray spoke of some European sights suggested by his topic—Napoleon's tomb, the Bastile with its single mighty tomb covering four hundred Revolutionists, one of the sewers of Paris flowing under bars beneath, the women street sweepers and women switch tenders in Munich, etc. A series of articles in The Chautauquan will describe the significant movement among German women.

Holland is changing rapidly from its old traditions of cleanliness and picturesqueness. Amsterdam is dirty, the Hague is clean, but everywhere the decorum which we have always attributed to the movements of the Dutch is changing to "hustle" just as it has changed in Japan. An American photographer representing the Metropolitan Museum had just been successful in taking a photograph in colors of the "Night Watch" by the auto-chrome process.

"We who look upon our age as given over to commercialism may well take heart from a study of the art of Holland and of Venice. In Dutch art some of the most superb examples are portrait groups of the Guilds; in Venice some of the finest portraits are of those Doges who were princes of commerce. In the Palace of the Doges the largest painting in the world portrays the commercial supremacy of Venice. It made me feel that our time and country may in time produce something quite as worth while in art."



CHAUTAUQUANS IN CHILE.

Several members of this year's graduating class of 1908 in the far East were heard from last year, and it required only a report from the Southern Hemisphere to give to the class membership the complete sense of having girdled the globe.

This link was supplied in the summer by a letter from an individual reader in Santiago alluded to in the September Round Table, and at this time by the following letter from another part of Chile, the two pictures accompanying it giving on the one hand an idea of the external environment of our Chautauqua readers in that country and on the other a suggestion of their daily occupation, which might find its counterpart in many North American cities. The reference to winter, however, in this letter written in June is a reminder of the leagues that stretch between us. It is dated Concepcion College, Concepcion, Chile, and comes in reply to a letter from the Round Table Editor:

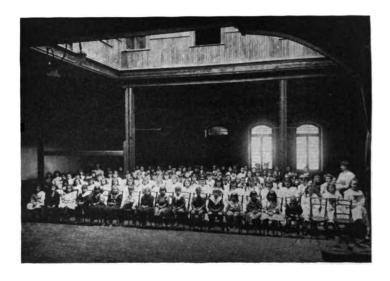
Your last letter was a very long time in reaching my southern home and this is really the first half hour I could set apart for its answer. Do you know that I have told the door girl, the teacher-on-charge, the servants and my daughter to allow no one to call me during this morning hour while I speak with you. Then I have taken the key and resolutely locked myself away from any chance interruption. We have a holiday today—Corpus Cristi—but very few of the devoted here who will answer the summons of the cathedral or convent bell know why this is a "special" day. It is raining gently and steadily, not at all like our last cloud burst which flooded the "patios," overflowed the water gullies and beat in at every crevice, until in some rooms it seemed to rain as hard as in the open air. Thus far we have had a mild winter and we congratulate each other that our hands are still free from chilblains and our great coats are hanging in the closets.

How much I have wished to be at the Chautauqua Assembly this summer. Will you please extend my most cordial greetings to the Class of 1908? My reading is all faithfully done, save the magazines which have not yet reached me. The May number arrived yesterday. Have you other circles yet farther away in point of correspondence?

Our college has grown rapidly in recent years. We have built a new annex and now are filled again to our utmost capacity. That means an entire enrollment of about 200. We have 90 boarders and 90 day pupils in actual attendance. I enclose a few pictures. The smaller one shows our gymnasium at a recent rehearsal. One of the larger ones gives you a good idea of the corner property which we wish very much to buy. Two of the college buildings are hidden.

I organized our Concepcion Chautauqua Circle with much enthusiasm. Two teachers, two pupil teachers, one American lady, six of our Alumni who live in the city, my daughter and myself—thirteen, I think, was the number who paid their dues, received the books and began the work. Then a Literary Society in the American College joined with us and for a few months everything was promising. Then one by one the members found difficulties in attending the meetings. (A Chilean girl never goes out unaccompanied.) Sickness caused the disbanding of the Literary

Concepcion College, Concepcion, Chile. (Two story building on the right.)



Gymnasium at a Rehearsal. Concepcion College, Chile.

Society. The members at a distance filled their time with nearer duties and so at the end of the first year my daughter and I were the only ones who had the courage to continue. Many have read our books. Others have asked about the Course. Some are even now talking of beginning again. The effort has not been in vain. But the fact remains that our Circle is reduced to two. We have enjoyed the entire course very much. Our reports will be forwarded soon.

I purpose to continue the reading. Please have a set of books sent for 1909. I still hope that my daughter may spend the next year in Syracuse and she may not be able to do more than the work required there. The idea of systematic reading is in harmony with the idea of systematic living. Fully one half of one's time and strength is lost when there is no plan. I shall recommend the Chautauqua Reading Course to every busy worker whom I know. I have been able to compass the entire course in moments which many, nay, even most people, would lose.

My husband is now in the States. He went as a delegate to the General Conference in Baltimore and we hope he will visit Chautauqua. He has read fully one half of the prescribed magazine reading and most of the books. My own is a busy life, for I am not only Preceptress but housekeeper, house mother, teacher, bookkeeper and, in my husband's absence, general manager. This will explain why my letter goes to you so late. Do not forget to give my greetings—our greetings I should say—



Members of the C. L. S. C. of Urbana, Ill., at the Class Day Exercises of 1908. (See page 467.)

to the Class of 1908. We live in a land of song and romance but in the midst are plainer seen the darkness and degradation of a slowly dying faith.

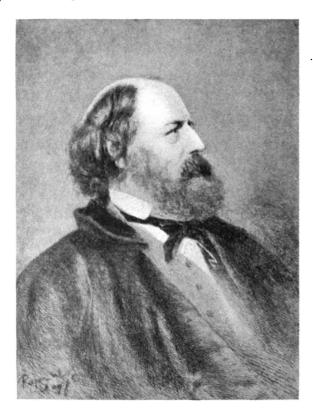
Yours most cordially,

IDA A. T. ARMS.



THE CLASS OF 1909.

The Class of 1909 at Chautauqua has shown from the outset even more than the ordinary amount of class enthusiasm. The attendance has been large every year and the class has had frequent cosy councils at which they have discussed the many aspects of their various Chautauqua experiences. All these things have tended to give them a deep interest in the members of the class at large. They have accepted their stewardship very loyally, and ever since they selected the name of "Dante" they have acted up to their motto, "On and fear not." Perchance distant readers of 1909 have many times been cheered quite unconsciously through the friendly



Tennyson. From the etching by Paul Rajon.

thought waves which have come from their Chautauqua classmates. The approach of graduation gives to this year a particular importance for every member of the Dante class. Three years of experience have educated its members in a knowledge of themselves. Let every member, whether well up with the reading or lagging a bit behind, take courage with this new year and make a record worthy of the class.

THE C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We study the Word and the Works of God."
"Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst."
"Never be Discouraged."

THE 1908 CLASS PORTRAIT OF TENNYSON.

With many people the enjoyment of etchings is an acquired taste. They find their way readily in a gallery of paintings but an exhibit of etchings has small attractions for them. Yet this branch of art lends itself to the most beautiful and satisfying effects, and it has attracted some of the men of greatest artistic genius, notably Rembrandt, who has left many examples of his skill.

The committee of one, of the Tennyson Class, Miss Una Iones, who was appointed to select a portrait of the poet for the class room at Chautauqua, was by special good fortune able to secure a fine etching by the distinguished French etcher, M. Rajon, which we here reproduce in half-tone. Even this imperfect medium shows not only the strong, expressive lines which give vigor to the portrait but the delicate rendering of light and shade which the artist has handled with rare skill.



SOME DUTCH PROVERBS.

Many cows, much trouble. Men can bear all things, except good days. The best pilots are ashore. Velvet and silk are strange herbs: they blow the fire out of the kitchen. It is easy to make a good fire of another man's turf. God giveth the fowls meat, but they must fly for it. He is wise that is always wise. The pastor and sexton seldom agree. No crown cureth headache. There is nothing that sooner dryeth up than a tear. When old dogs bark it is time to look out. Ride on, but look about. It's bad catching hares with drums. Before thou trust a friend eat a peck of salt with him. When everyone sweeps before his own house, then are the streets clean. High trees give more shadow than fruit. It happeneth sometimes that a good seaman falls overboard.

Circles will find much pleasure and benefit in occasional digests of important magazine articles relating to world conditions. Where the circle has no library a small tax per member of five cents a week would easily create a fund from which an occasional magazine could be purchased to the great enjoyment of the circle. Digitized by Google

C. L S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

INTERNATIONAL PRACE DAY—May 18.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

INTERNATIONAL PRACE DAY—May 18.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.

LANIER DAY—February 3.

ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Satur-

Special Sunday—February, second Sunday day after first Tuesday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27. RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wed-SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23. nesday.



OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR DECEMBER.

FIRST WEEK-NOVEMBER 26-DECEMBER 3.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "The Friendship of Nations," Part III. The Story of the Peace Movement to page 344.

In the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapter VIII. The Reaction.

SECOND WEEK-DECEMBER 3-10.

In The Chautauquan: "The Friendship of Nations," Part III. The Story of the Peace Movement, concluded.

In the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapter IX. The Revolutions, Chapter X. The Unity of Italy.

THIRD WEEK-DECEMBER 10-17.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "Dutch Art and Artists." Chapter III. Rembrandt and His Pupils.

In the Required Book: "Foundations of Modern Europe." Chapter XI. The Unity of Germany and Epilogue.

FOURTH WEEK-DECEMBER 17-24.

In The Chautauquan: "A Reading Journey in the Hollow Land." Chapter III.

Art, Ancient and Modern Sports, Skating, etc. A Wedding. Courtship.

FIFTH WEEK-DECEMBER 23-31-VACATION.



SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

FIRST WEEK.

Roll Call: Reports on paragraphs in Highways and Byways and other current news. Review of Chapter VIII in "Foundations of Modern Europe," The Reaction. Let each member bring a statement of the chief points in the chapter.

Reading: Selection from "Personal Recollections of Liszt," Century Magazine, 65:866, April, 1907.

Oral Report: "The Fight Against Dueling in Europe." (See Fortnightly Review for August, 1908; abridged in Review of Reviews for October.)

Character Sketch: The present Emperor of Austria. (See articles in Review of Reviews, 36:552-5, Nov., '07; Living Age, 255:707-15, Dec. 21, '07, also Outlook, 87:477-81, Nov. 2, '07.

Oral Report: "Austria's Dark Horse, Francis Ferdinand." (See Forinightly Review, 88:904-18, Dec., '07; same article in Living Age, 256:195-216, Jan. 25, '08.)

SECOND WEEK.

Review of Chapter IX on The Revolutions.

Roll Call: Answers to the question: "What is the outlook for the 'Friendship of Nations' in view of the Balkan situation?"

Review of chapter in "Foundations of Modern Europe" on "The Unity of Italy."

Paper: Dramatic features of the Italian struggle for Independence. (See "Makers of Modern Italy," Marriott. This will be found also as one section of "Men and Cities of Italy.")

Roll Call: Quotations from Mrs. Browning referring to the Italian struggle for freedom.

Character Sketch: Cavour. (See above "Makers of Modern Italy.")

Book Review: "Italy Today" by Bolton King. A very valuable book showing how Italy has progressed.

Oral Reports: Side Lights on Italy Today. (See current articles relating to Italy, "Rome's Jewish Mayor," and "The Making of Modern Rome" in Review of Reviews, 38:484-6, Oct., 1908.)

THIRD WEEK.

Map Review: Germany after the Congress of Vienna and Germany of today.

Review and Discussion of Chapter XI in "Foundations of Modern Europe."

Character Study: Bismarck. (See a small volume by Monroe Smith, "Bismarck and German Unity," also article in *Atlantic Monthly*, 82:560, by Kuno Francke, "Bismarck as a National Type." References in Poole's index will suggest other articles if desired.)

Reading: Selections from "Anecdotal character sketch of Bismarck" by C. Lowe (Review of Reviews, 18:291), or from article on Student Life in Germany in this magazine.

Roll Call: Items of interest relating to the Kaiser and Germany as affected by the recent Balkan troubles.

Review of article in this magazine on "The Social Policy of Germany," by C. R. Henderson.

Study of article on Rembrandt and his pupils, members being assigned special pictures on which to report. In "Old Dutch and Flemish Masters" there is some very interesting critical comment by Mr. J. C. Van Dyke on Bol, Dou, Maes and Flinck. These chapters were first published in the Century Magazine, 25:563; 27:412 and 933.

FOURTH WEEK.

Paper: Holland of Rembrandt's time from the death of William of Orange to the death of John DeWitt.

Roll Call: Dutch Proverbs. (See Round Table.)

Reading: Selection from account of De Ruyter in the Library Shelf of this magazine.

Oral Report: The Position of Woman in Holland. (See chapter with this title in "Dutch Life in Town and Country.")

Reading: Selection from articles on Dutch Fisheries and Skating and Sleighing in "Holland Described by Great Writers," Singleton, and "Holland and its People," DeAmicis.

Discussion: Germany and the Future of Holland. (Each member should bring all available material. See articles "Future of the Netherlands," Living Age, 251: 253-5, Oct. 27, '06; "Does Germany really aim to absorb Holland." Review of Reviews, 31:735, June, '05; "German Designs on Holland and Belgium," North American, 84:22-8, Jan. 4, '07.

THE TRAVEL CLUB.

Special programs for Graduate Circles and Clubs specializing upon the two Dutch Series. (A copy of Baedeker's "Belgium and Holland" is quite indispensable for such clubs.)

FIRST WEEK.

Brief Review of Dutch History to 1648. (See outline on page 462.)

Paper: The Netherlands under John De Witt. (See Histories of Holland, Larned's "History for Ready Reference," etc.)

Roll Call: Dutch proverbs. (See Round Table.)

Oral Report: Dordrecht. (See "Holland Described by Great Writers," Singleton. "Brave Little Holland," Griffis. "A Wanderer in Holland," Lucas, and Baedeker's "Belgium and Holland.")

Reading: Selections from Chapter on The Professional Classes in "Dutch Life in Town and Country."

Discussion: Germany and the Future of Holland. Each member should bring all available material. (See articles: "Future of the Netherlands," Living Age. 251:253-5, Oct. 27, '06; "Does Germany really aim to absorb Holland?" Review of Reviews, 31:735, June, '05: "German Designs on Holland and Belgium," North American, 184:22-8, Jan. 4, '07.

SECOND WEEK.

Review of current article in the Reading Journey.

Paper: The Position of Women in Holland. (See Chapter with this title in "Dutch Life in Town and Country." Also The Chautauquan, 21-435.)

Book Review with reading of Selections: "The Cloister and the Hearth." Charles Reade. (Times of Erasmus.)

Oral Reports: "Country Life in Holland," "Dutch Fisheries," "Skating and Sleighing." See "Holland Described by Great Writers," Singleton, and "Holland and its People," De Amicis.

Roll Call: Specimens of the Dutch Language. (See Baedeker.)

THIRD WEEK.

Oral Report: The Holland of Rembrandt's time.

Points of View of the Rembrandt Tercentenary: (See bibliography following Mr. Zug's article.)

(Four persons should be appointed to report on the magazine articles referred to and any others that may be available.)

Paper: Rembrandt as an etcher. (See bibliography.)

Oral Report: Some of the principal subjects chosen by Rembrandt. (See list of his principal paintings in the "Masters in Art" Monograph on Rembrandt.)

Discussion of article on Rembrandt and his religious pictures, the pictures being assigned to different members and the comments of various critics studied in connection with them.

FOURTH WEEK.

Paper: Rembrandt as teacher. (See lives of Rembrandt and of his pupils.)

Character Sketches: Ferdinand Bol and Gerard Dou. (See "Old Dutch and Flemish

Masters" by T. Cole and J. C. Van Dyke.) These studies were first published
in the Century Magazine, Bol, in 27:933; Dou, in 25:656, March, 1894.

Critical Studies of Rembrandt's pupils, Bol, Flinck, Maes and Dou. (See Century Magazine, 27:412 for Flinck; 25:563, Feb. 1894, for Maes.)

Book Review: "Story of Art Throughout the Ages." Solomon Reinach.

REVIEW AND SEARCH QUESTIONS ON DECEMBER READINGS.

THE FRIENDSHIP OF NATIONS, CHAPTER III. THE STORY OF THE PEACE MOVEMENT.

1. What organizations show the importance attained by the Peace Movement? 2. How long has this movement been in progress? 3. What conditions led to it? 4. What ideas looking toward universal peace were put forth in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries? 5. How did the Peace Movement take shape in the early part of the nineteenth century? 6. Describe the organization of the first Peace Society. 7. What English society was formed the next year? 8. Describe the work of William Ladd. 9. How did our Civil War affect the progress of the movement? 10. When and in what way did the cause of peace take on new life? 11. What is the general status of the Peace Movement? 12. What was the character of the international congresses held from 1843 to 1851? 13. In what cities have the modern peace congresses been held? 14. Show how various governments have co-operated in these congresses. 15. Describe the origin and work of the International Peace Bureau. 16. What is the purpose of the Interparliamentary Union? 17. What important results followed its meetings in 1904 and 1906? 18. How early was the idea of a High Court of Nations emphasized? 19. Show how far reaching was the work of William Ladd. 20. Show how plans for a permanent International Tribunal of Arbitration developed. 21. What influences resulted in the establishment of the Bureau of American Republics? 22. How are the various peace organizations striving to render effective the work of the two Hague conferences? 23. Show how rapidly the practice of arbitration has increased. 24. How has the idea of a Permanent International Court of Arbitration progressed? 25. What was the origin of the Nobel peace prize?

A READING JOURNEY IN THE HOLLOW LAND. CHAPTER III.

1. What are the great characteristics of Dutch Art? 2. What artists are associated with certain types of landscape or of domestic scenes? 3. How long a period covers the work of some twenty of these artists? 4. What artists are credited with the discovery of oil painting? 5. Why did so much of the work of their predecessors perish? 6. Who are the leaders of the Modern Dutch School and what are some of their distinctive traits? 7. Describe the fishing fleet of Scheveningen. 8. What are some of the chief sports of Holland? 9. What festivities accompany the skating

period? 10. Describe a Dutch wedding. 11. What is the Dutch custom of courting?

DUTCH ART AND ARTISTS. III. REMBRANDT AND HIS PUPILS.

1. What evidences have we of Rembrandt's prosperity during the first half of his career? 2. What was the nature of his home life? 3. What changes came with the death of Saskia? 4. What extravagances are attributed to him? 5. What marvelous creative energy is shown by his works which have come down to us? 6. How did the sacred paintings of Italy differ from those of Rembrandt? 7. Describe his painting of "Simeon in the Temple." 8. What artistic qualities does he show in "The Angel Leaving Tobias?" 9. How does his picture of "Christ at Emmaus" compare with paintings of Christ by other artists? 10. What is true of Rembrandt's work as an etcher? 11. What peculiarities of style did Gerard Dou develop? 12. What are some of the best specimens of his portrait work? 13. How was he fond of treating interiors? 14. How did his pictures compare in popularity with those of Rembrandt? 15. What were Dou's limitations? 16. Who were some of Rembrandt's best known pupils? 17. How do their works compare with the master's?

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

- 1. What important books on peace were written by Hugo Grotius? 2. What connection had Lord Selden of England with the first of these two books? 3. What interest was shown in the work of Grotius by the Swedish general, Gustavus? 4. What international treaty abolished the practice of privateering? 5. When was the practice of plundering a defeated foe formally abandoned?
- From what is the quotation referring to Amaryllis taken?
 What historic sea fight took place near Scheveningen?
 How do the flags of Holland and Belgium differ?
 What do the Dutch call their country?

ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON NOVEMBER READINGS.

- 1. Journalist and novelist. Born in Utica, N. Y., 1856, died in London, 1898 Graduated from Hamilton College. Editor of Utica Observer and Albany Evening Journal. From 1884 until his death was London correspondent of the New York Times. In his fiction he aimed to portray the peculiar features of American life. Among his best known works are: "Seth's Brother's Wife," "The Lawton Girl," "In the Valley," and "The Damnation of Theron Ware." 2. Servia, Roumania, Bulgaria, European Turkey, Montenegro, Bosnia, and Herzegovina. 3. After the Greco-Turkish War of 1897. The powers appointed a High Commissioner in 1898. The country freed from Turkish tribute though still under the suzerainty of the Porte.

 4. In the eastern part of European Turkey, northwest of Constantinople. 5. Mulai Hafid, half brother of his predecessor. 6. Those situated upon or having control of a given shore.
- 1. A pseudonym of Charles Godfrey Leland who wrote burlesque poems in Pennsylvania Dutch. He lived in London from 1869-80 and gave much time to the study of the language and customs of the gypsies. His translations of Heine's lyrics are among the best. 2. Dutch navy: 8 battleships, 7 cruisers, 1 monitor, 1 protected gunboat, 15 modern and 4 old torpedo boats. Germany: 24 battleships, 7 battleships coast defence, 39 cruisers, 69 destroyers, 47 torpedo boats, 1 submarine.

United States navy: 25 battleships, 28 cruisers, 10 monitors, 3 scouts, 16 destroyers, 33 torpedo boats, 12 submarines. 3. Michel Adriaanzoon de Ruyter. Born at Flushing, Netherlands, in 1607; died at Syracuse, Italy, in 1676. A famous Dutch admiral. He served against the Spaniards in 1641 and against the English in 1652-4. Became vice-admiral after the death of Tromp in 1653. Ennobled by the King of Denmark at the close of the war with Sweden, in 1660, De Ruyter having commanded the Dutch fleet. Became Admiral in Chief in the struggles with the English and French fleets in the '60's and '70's and was mortally wounded in a battle against the French off Messina in 1676. 4. Eendracht maakt Macht (Unity makes strength). 5. It was formed by the union of several smaller trading companies in March, 1602. Received from the state a monopoly of the trade on the further side of the Straits of Magellan and the Cape of Good Hope, including the right to make treaties and alliances in the name of the States-General, to establish factories and forts and to employ soldiers. It held the chief centers of commerce in the Indian Archipelago and had flourishing colonies in South Africa. Dissolved and territories transferred to the State in 1795. 6. Boyman's Museum, at Rotterdam; Mauritshuis, Steengracht Gallery, Municipal Museum, and Mesdag Museum, at the Hague; Town Hall, Haarlem; Six collection, Ryks Museum, and Municipal Museum, Amsterdam.

GLOSSARY.

The following is a selected list of words occurring in the required book for this month. See paragraph under "glossary," page 306, of the October Chautauquan for explanation of typographical arrangement.

Bosnia Beethoven Budapest Bukharest Bukovina Cavour Custozza Chopin Chauteaubriand Caucasus Castanos Herzegovina Jeanne d'Arc Laveleye Liszt Montmirail Magyar Mahmud Monaco Oudinot Orsini Quatre-Bras Rheims Rouen Sadowa Wagram

Walewska

bos-ne-ah bay-to-ven boo-dah-pest boo-ka-rest boo-ka-vee-nah kah-poor koos-toat-sah sho-paN shah-to-bree-oN kaw-ka-sus kahs-tahn-yoas hehrt-se-go-ve-nah zhan-*dar k* lahv-lay list moN-mee-ray mo-dyor mah-mood mon-ah-ko oo-de-no or-se-ne kahtr-brah reems 100-0N sah-do-vah vah-grahm vah-lev-ska

REVIEW OUTLINE OF DUTCH HISTORY.

Romans, Celts, Teutons, Franks, Vandals, and other races held sway in the early centuries of the Netherlands.

Saxons and Frisians who crossed the Channel to England, sent back later Christian missionaries to their Dutch neighbors. First Christian Church at Utrecht about 720 A. D. Pipin, king of the Franks, conquers the Dutch Frisians in 692. St. Boniface brings the Frisian Christians under the sway of Rome. Is murdered at Dokkum by a pagan and patriotic reaction.

800 A. D. During the time of Charlemagne the Netherlands were under his control. Following him the Feudal System which prevailed took form in various Dukedoms, Countships and Bishoprics. In Frisia democratic tendencies prevailed even in feudal times and the land belonged to the people. The development of commerce led to the growth of towns. Seven feudal states ultimately arose: Holland North and South, Zeeland, Utrecht, Overyssel, Drenthe, Groningen and Friesland.

1096 to 1292. The Crusades brought Dutchmen into contact with the Orient. William, Count of Holland, with twelve ships, aided in capturing Alcazar and in reducing the siege of Damietta in Egypt. They brought home new ideas. William granted a charter to Middleburg in 1217. This document shows the fixed status of the Dutch language and the independent spirit of the people. The Crusades resulted in increase of luxury, freedom of slaves, growth of towns and manufactures, windmills, church spires, cupolas, and bells, improvement of dykes, revival of the lost art of brickmaking, exacting of privileges from feudal masters and growth of religious independence.

1351-1500. The Cods and Hooks: A feud which started between the aristocratic classes under William of Holland and the popular elements under his mother Margaret, sister of William I. It continued until 1433 when Jacqueline of Bavaria surrendered to her cousin Philip of Burgund, who united all the provinces of the Netherlands under one rule in 1433. Order of the Golden Fleece established. Only twenty-five great nobles, kings or emperors eligible. The weaving industry became the basis of the Netherlands' prosperity. Philip died in 1467. His son, Charles the Bold, added to his father's tyrannies and at his death in 1477 the Netherlands stood for their rights. Mary of Burgundy, Charles' daughter, met the first Congress at Ghent. The Great Privilege, the Dutch Magna Charta, granted. 1477 also the first Bible translated into Dutch. Mary married Maximilian of Austria in that same year and the Netherlands came under the Hapsburgs. Maximilian as regent of his son Philip ignored "The Great Privilege," sided with the "Cods" and crushed the people. Charles the Fifth, son of Philip, born in 1500. The most famous of the Hapsburg rulers.

The sixteenth Century: Social Progress: Development of bulb industries from all over the world. Botanical gardens. Progress in agriculture and stock raising. Many practical inventions, "Dutch oven," etc. Introduction of flax, linen manufactories, dyeing, weaving, bleaching, etc. Lace-making becomes a fine art. Intellectual movements: Influence of the printing press and the Bible in Dutch. Next to Italy Holland led in number of schools. Gerhart Groote (1340) born at Deventer had

founded the "Brotherhood of the Common Life" taught and encouraged the multiplication of manuscripts and schools. His followers spread the new ideas of the Renaissance and developed public schools. Religious Movements: Erasmus born in Rotterdam 1467, educated in Holland, studied Greek at University of Paris, lived in England, visited Rome. Wrote on his return to England "Praise of Folly," exposing weaknesses of the Church. Made a correct text of the Greek testament and laid the foundation for the work of other scholars. The Anabaptists exerted strong influence in favor of freedom of conscience and right of private judgment. They were the beginners of the Reformation in Holland, followed later by Lutherans and Calvinists. Charles V. attempted to crush the Reformation in Holland, and taxed the people for his wars. The Inquisition. Charles abdicated at Brussels in 1555. William of Orange stadtholder of three provinces, twenty-two years of age. Philip II., son of Charles, twenty-eight. War between France and Spain followed. The Netherlands sent troops. The victory of St. Quentin in 1557 under Egmont and Hoorn brought fame to the Dutch troops. William of Orange, as hostage of the Court of France, learned of the plan of Henry II. and Philip II. for the massacre of the French and Dutch Protestants. Struggle between Protestants and Catholics. The nobles protested to Duchess Margaret against the Inquisition and Spanish troops. The "beggars" were organized. Philip proved obdurate and the storm burst.

1567-1648. Counts Egmont and Hoorn were beheaded and William of Orange outlawed. Duchess Margaret retired. Alva was made governor-general. Battle of Heiliger Lee, the "Beggars" under Louis of Nassau defeated the Spaniards. William became a Protestant. Capture of Brill by the "Beggars of the Sea," other towns raised the Orange colors. Alva's attack on Narden. Seven months' siege of Haarlem. Alkmaar attacked by Don Frederic cut its dykes. Alva succeeded by de Requesens. Siege and rescue of Leyden. Founding of its University 1575. Don John of Austria becomes governor-general. Formation of the Union of Utrecht 1579. Seven provinces: Holland, Utrecht, Zeeland, Overyssel, Gelderland, Friesland and Groningen. deposed Philip in 1581 and became The Dutch Republic. William of Orange assassinated 1584. Elizabeth of England aided the Dutch with men and money. son of William, continued the war. Dutch East India Company formed in 1602. Dutch traders and wise administration at home helped to sustain the Republic through the long war. The Dutch built dykes and reclaimed new land. A truce with Spain for twelve years began in 1609. Troubles over state rights and religious freedom beset the Republic, Maurice representing the National party, John of Barneveld the State rights element. The situation complicated with religious controversies. Synod of Dort in 1618 called by Maurice, ostensibly religious but really political. The National party triumphed and John of Barneveld was executed. Frederick Henry succeeded his brother Maurice in 1625. The struggle with Spain closed in 1648.

1650-1672. The stadtholders were set aside and John De Witt ruled as "Grand Pensionary." Cromwell's navigation acts precipitated a struggle with England. De Ruyter, Tromp and other heroes achieved notable victories for the Dutch. Louis XIV. of France captured the Southern Netherlands belonging to Spain, but the Triple Alliance of Holland, England and Sweden kept him in check until its dissolution in 1672.

when the French fell upon the defenceless republic, seizing Guelders, Overyssel and Utrecht. The people in wrath rose upon De Witt and tore him and his brother to pieces.

1672-1713. William III., the last of the Orange-Nassau family, was elected and defeated the French. Became king of England in 1688. Joined with the Dutch in opposing the encroachments of France At his death in 1702 his cousin, John William Friso, became president. The Dutch took part in the War of the Spanish Succession and Utrecht was chosen for the peace congress in 1713. The eighteenth century marks the decline of the republic. The French Republicans captured the country in 1795, founding the "Batavian Republic" under R. J. Schimmelpenninck as Grand Pensionary. Napoleon's brother, Louis Bonaparte, king of Holland from 1806-1810.

1813-1908. The French driven out by the Dutch with the help of Russia and Prussia. The Congress of Vienna, 1815, united the Belgian provinces with Holland under King William I., son of William V., the last stadtholder. In 1830 the Belgian provinces revolted. King William succeeded by William II. and William III. and the latter in 1890 by Wilhelmina, the queen mother serving as regent until 1898. In 1901 Wilhelmina married Henry, Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, who was created Prince of the Netherlands.

NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES.

Several members engaged in earnest conversation attracted the attention of the Round Table as the delegates leisurely took their places. "If I had been in his position," one of them was saying, "I certainly should have acted in the same way, Turkey or no Turkey." Then the speaker, whose attitude suggested the Declaration of Independence, suddenly came to herself. "I'm afraid my fellow members of the Round Table," she laughed, "will think I'm waxing belligerent over plans for Thanksgiving, but as a matter of fact we were only discussing the Balkan situation! My family seem disposed to think that the Modern European year has gone to my head, but really they enjoy my pursuit of European news and one of my boys stands by bravely. He used to turn to the sporting column in the paper the first thing in the morning, but now he hunts up the foreign items first and we all discuss them together. When the proper names baffle our efforts at pronunciation I assign different words to each member of the household and sometime before breakfast the next morning we are sure to hear the result. We have bought the Century Cyclopedia of names and it already shows signs of wear. We made a sloping shelf for it in a convenient place and it seems almost like a member of the family. I haven't done any serious study for years and I'm really renewing my youth."

"Some of you who have read the life of Alice Freeman Palmer," said Pendragon, "may recall a very apt sentence in which Professor Palmer referred to Mrs. Palmer's adaptability. He said, 'What was peculiar in her was small. She chiefly distinguished herself by wise ways of confronting the usual world.' It's a good phrase for us to bear in mind as we go into our new year of work. To confront our own environment wisely is possible to every one even if our talents are limited. It means foresight and careful weighing of claims instead of 'plunging' as many of us do. Then we excuse ourselves as 'too busy.' There are people who even find themselves too busy to read the daily paper and then they have a sense of being out of touch with things and their daily thinking is affected by it. The effect of just this one bit of foresight is to produce in us a sense of pressure and unrest. Let us plan this year to confront our usual world with all the wisdom we possess."

"This Round Table," he continued, "is necessarily a somewhat 'mixed affair' for there are some reports left over from the summer and we don't want to lose them-First, however, let me say that our new year is opening up with great promise. The enrollment is running well ahead of last year and the circumference of the circle is widening. Splendid work was done at many of the summer Chautauquas. Here for instance is the program of the Winfield Chautauqua banquet. Rev. D. W. Howell, Chautauqua's general secretary, who was present, reports that the occasion was a delightful one. If it was half as pleasant as one of its predecessors which I had the privilege of attending in the summer of '95 it was one of the best things of the assembly. Miss Meddie Hamilton, who has charge of the C. L. S. C. Round Table at four assemblies has a positive genius for awakening interest in home study. More than four hundred readers have been reported through her this summer and very many of them belong to the new class of 1912. At Ottawa, Sterling, and Cawker City, Kansas, and at Pontiac, Illinois, she has established a deep-down enthusiasm for the permanent features of Chautauqua work and has moreover trained and started on similar lines several other workers."

"This copy of The Chautauquan Weekly, which is published at Chautauqua throughout the year, you will notice, gives an extended account of the celebration of Opening Day, October 1st, when the Bryant bell rings in the new C. L. S. C. year. The earliest C. L. S. C. tradition is that 'Wherever they may be, true Chautauquans can hear its echoes.' The Bryant bell was never rung more vigorously than on the present occasion and doubtless even our members in the antipodes heard its distant tones. Let me give you the setting of the scene from The Weekly:

The weather last Thursday morning was like the coming year—full of promise and of hope, with flashes of fulfillment as the sun shone out brightly now and then.

The procession, two by two, wound down the hill from the Colonnade with the two daughters of Mr. S. D. Chaney of Cookman Avenue on their ponies as a vanguard. Dr. S. H. Day, the Marshal of the Day, came next with Mr. Charles Gill, the Chairman of the exercises at the Pier; and they were followed by four-score C. L. S. C. students—men and women, undergraduates, present workers, and members of the Society of the Hall in the Grove. There was a group of young ladies from Westfield and there were men and women of advancing years who proudly wore their badges of the Class of '82, and there were all sorts of intermediate ages. No one not within the charmed

Circle was admitted this year, so that every one knew that his neighbor, whether from a nearby town or from a distant state was or had been a co-worker with himself in courses whose continuance the day celebrated.

The procession gathered on the south gallery of the Pier, and Mr. Gill announced the first song—an old Chautauqua favorite—"The Winds are Whispering." Rev. J. M. Bray offered prayer.

Mr. Gill, in the absence of Mrs. Blichfeldt, read the poem written by Mrs. Grace Livingston Hill Lutz for this same function last year, opening with the stanza,

Temples and halls are silent now
The forest aisles alone,
The hush of Fall is over all,
The multitudes are gone.
But hark! thro' all the quiet paths,
A bell peals clear and true,
Its echoes sound the world around,
Across the waters blue.

At the summons of the poet's lines the bell, its rope touched by the hands of every one of the throng, sent its music across the waters of the Lake—and the new C. L. S. C. year had begun.

The banquet room to which the members adjourned revealed in all its appointments the creditable work of the committees. The hall was decorated with autumn flowers and with pictures of birds of the locality painted by the artist, Miss Hazen, Portraits of the founders of Chautauqua, Lewis Miller and Bishop Vincent, also emphasized the character of the occasion. Mr. Bestor, General Director of Chautauqua, carried out his rôle of toastmaster with skill and enthusiasm, putting each speaker en rapport with his environment. Mr. Blichfeldt of the Extension Department in responding to the topic, "Circling Circles," portrayed the situation with delicate humor: 'Chautauqua Circles," he said, "call up a definite picture, a group of people arrangeafter the form of the highest emblem—the cipher—and engaged in the interchange of wit and other soul commodities. But 'Circling Circles' are different. C. L. S. C. Circles do not circle; they sit. But 'Circling Circles' have progressive influence, and in that sense C. L. S. C Circles do circle." On that very morning, Mr. Blichfeldt said he had received at the office a letter asking for information from a person who had become interested in the Reading Course through the same C. L. S. C. member in Mexico who had first roused Mr. Blichfeldt's interest.

"There must be a reason for the persistency and the increase of the Circles and for their enthusiasm in the work. First, the C. L. S. C. offers good stuff; and second, it is carried on because of the sincerity of the propagandists. In recommending it we are recommending what we believe in and what we do not tire of but keep up year after year. The Circles circle because of the devotion of those who believe in the Chautauqua Idea and because of their willingness to propagate it."

The delegate from the Plus Ultra Circle of Jamestown responded to the next toast on the Europe of Today and told of the proposed plans for the work of this progressive circle. Mrs. Day, president of the A. M. Martin Circle of Chautauqua, reminded her audience of their indebtedness to the Dutch, telling a number of amusing anecdotes of her sojourn in Holland and referring to our inheritance of the Dutch stoop, the Dutch settle, the Dutch oven, and the danger, if her toast proved distasteful, of being talked to "like a Dutch uncle!" Mrs. Estelle Rood, of the Westfield Circle, made a bright little speech on "What we owe to Europe," tracing our indebtedness to the various races and in the last analysis to Chautauqua for helping us to appreciate our obligations. Mr. Bray, Managing Editor of The Chautauqua Press, gave some impressions of his recent trip to Europe where he gathered a large number of the illustrations which will appear in THE CHAUTAUQUAN during the coming year. To Miss Teal, a member of the local Chautauqua Circle, was assigned the subject "As we see Others," which she treated humorously, and the program closed with Dr. Day's "The Newness of the New," wherein Esperanto was made to do duty as a Chautauqua language. Circles from Jamestown, Westfield, and Mayville were represented by considerable delegations and there were visiting Chautauquans from Ashville and Buffalo, New York, Bedford, Indiana, Beaver, and Linwood, Pennsylvania, and Kirkville, Missouri.

Pendragon indicated a photograph attached to a bulletin board. "You have doubtless noticed this," he said. "It represents a group of Urbana, Illinois, readers taken on the occasion of their class day exercises last June. You will remember that we had a report of the graduate circle at our June meeting. This group includes the graduates of 1908, of whom there were seventeen, and members of both the graduate and undergraduate circles. Notice the tasteful little gray program, the class color, tied with the garnet which indicates a graduate. Here is the program which makes us all wish we might have been present:

PART I.

Hymn-"Strong Son of God"	`	vson's In Memoriam

Quartette.

Recognition Service	Mrs. Elvira McElfresh and Class
Chautauqua Song	
Class History	
Class Poem-Tennyson's "Ulysses"	Mrs. Lillian McCain Gilmer
Piano Duet-"Bucephale"	.Mrs. Carrie L. Campbell and daughter
Class Prophecy	Mrs. Nettie Hunt
Vocal Solo-Merry Maiden Spring-MacDov	wellMiss Luvilla B. Carson
Presentation of Wreath	Mrs. Hortense C. Barr
Response—Class 1910	Mrs. Addie McClelland Page
Notes from Alumnae	Mrs. Clara Y. Shaw
Class Song	Quartette

PART II.

"A Day at the Know-it-all Woman's Club" by MARY MONCURE PARKER

Place-Home of President.

TIME-Monday Afternoon.

DRAMATIS PERSONAE.

Mrs. Wisdom-President	Miss Fleming
Mrs. Chiffon	Mrs. Woolman
Mrs. Pusher	Mrs. Hunt
Mrs. By-Laws	Mrs. Jones
Miss Antequate	Mrs. Van Doren
Mrs. Lorgnette	
Mrs. Manley	
Mrs. Philan Thrope	
Miss Annual	Mrs. Campbell
Mrs. Would-be Vice-President	Miss Alice Lemon
Dr. Molly Cule	Mrs. Watts
Mary Ann	
Reporters, Visitors, Servants,	

"The entire program and the play were a great success and the pleasant social atmosphere of a private house gave to the gathering, though a large one, a cozy character. The graduate circle is taking up work in English Literature this year under one of the university professors and the undergraduates with the inspiration of this fine large '08 class behind them will assuredly make a fine record."

"Another echo of the summer comes in a note from Miss Otis of the Vincent Circle, the oldest circle of Des Moines. This circle has for many years been devoting itself to the study of Shakespeare. She writes, 'We have had a fine circle of eleven this year and have done good work on Henry V. and VI. You may be interested in our "finishing up" on April 23. For the last sixteen years I have celebrated the birthday of our friend William by giving a party with a suitable program. This year the circle gave the comic parts of "Midsummer Night's Dream" in a very creditable manner. We took the scene where the mechanicals meet to plan for the play; the wood where they practice and Bottom is transformed and Titania falls in love with him; further plans for the play and its performance before the Duke. Those who had seen it on the stage thought we were fully up to the mark and I felt very proud of them all!"

"I fear we must postpone further comments till another meeting," said Pendragon, "but as you leave look over this small brown pamphlet on the table. The new year book of the Round Table Circle of Kokomo, Indiana. This pile of newspaper clippings you will see shows that circles are organizing and reorganizing everywhere."

Lectures on Modern Europe

One of the lecturers and Round Table speakers at Chautauqua this summer was Dr. Henry Zick, a native of Heidelberg, Germany, and graduate of its university. He is one of the lecturers of the Boards of Education in New York and vicinity and for the American Society of University-Teaching. Circles near New York may be glad to untilize this opportunity for securing one or more illustrated lectures on the subjects of the current year's course. Dr. Zick has traveled widely, and his lectures are the result of both study and observation. Dr. Zick will make special rates to small centers. Details can be arranged on writing to the Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, N. Y. Three series of lectures which can be given singly or in groups are offered.

EUROPEAN HISTORY. FOUR LECTURES.

1. Dr. Martin Luther and the Moral Regeneration of Europe.

A presentation of Luther's Life and Work and the Widespread Influence of the Reformatory Movement of the Sixteenth Century. 70 pictures.

2. The French Revolution and the Political Regeneration of Europe.

A presentation of the causes, the progress and the effect of the gigantic upheaval of the years 1789 to 1795, and the march of political liberty through Europe. 100 pictures.

3. Napoleon, the Man of Destiny.

A presentation of the career of the great conqueror and statesman. The benefits he worked for Europe in spite of himself and an estimate of the lasting good he conferred on France and the world. 100 pictures.

4. Germany's Struggle for Unification and the Franco-Prussian War.

A presentation of the making of the New German Empire and the ascendency of the German race in Europe and a thrilling account of the great war of 1870-71. 70 pictures.

GLIMPSES OF EUROPE AND EUROPEAN LIFE.

1. Imperial Berlin and Royal Potsdam.

A description of Germany's capital, its streets, buildings, life; a lesson in municipal government; a visit to Sans-Souci, the summer residence of Frederick the Great and William II. 80 pictures.

2. The Kaiser's Army and Navy, and Military Life in Germany.

A description of the military and naval establishment of the foremost military power in Europe and the Life in the Army. The latter is based on the lecturer's personal experience. 80 pictures.

3. The Picturesque Rhine and Peasant Life in the Black Forest.

A description of the gem of rivers; its cities and castles; its legends and its people; and of peasant life in the Black Forest, the most picturesque woodland country in South Germany. 80 pictures.

4. Heidelberg Castle, the Pearl of Ruins, and Student Life in Dear Old Heidelberg.

A description of Heidelberg, one of the most beautiful places in the whole wide world, and of the castle, the gem of ruins; how Germany's youth studies and has a good time at the same time. 80 pictures.

5. Paris, the Queen of Cities.

A description of the "ville lumière," the city beautiful, of its historical buildings, its lovely streets, its wonderful vistas and its momentous historical associations. So pictures.

6. Rome, the Eternal City.

A description of Roma Immortalis, her historical monuments, her present day beauty, her eternal charm as the conqueror of the world through her armies, her laws, her church. 80 pictures.

7 Naples and Pompeii, or the Siren City and the City of the Dead.

A description of Naples and its bay; its life and picturesque streets; of Vesuvius and Capri's gem, the blue grotto, and of Pompeii, a typical Roman town, preserved not destroyed by Vesuvius.

Esperanto News

Details concerning the fourth international Congress have come at last and confirm the good news which had come in through the Associated Press. Fifteen hundred Esperantists took possession of Dresden for a week and some very serious business was transacted, foremost of which stands the formation of an Academy which will rule on points of grammar and upon the admissibility of new words into the language. Twelve academicians were elected: Messrs. Boirac, Bein, Cart, Grabowski, Moch de Saussure, Nylén, Mybs, Villanueva, Wackrill, Ellis, and Evstifeieff. That is four Frenchmen, two Poles, one Swede, one German, one Spaniard, two Englishmen, and one Russian. This Academy met and organized four permanent sections: 1—grammar, 2—ordinary dictionary, 3—technical dictionary, 4—general affairs.

THE FIFTH CONGRESS.

Two nations contended for the fifth congress, the United States and Spain. In a spirit of enthusiasm and without stopping to consider the result, the fourth congress

decided that two congresses might take place in 1909, namely, one in Chautauqua and one in Barcelona, and that the dates could be arranged by agreement with these two countries. This is manifestly unfair to both applicants, for, if there is to be an international congress in Barcelona a few weeks after the congress at Chautauqua it is evident that many Europeans would avoid the greater expense of time and money by not coming to Chautauqua and going to Barcelona instead and those who would have spent the time and money to come here would scarcely afford to go to Barcelona a few weeks later. A brisk correspondence is now passing between the Central Office in Paris and the office of the executive committee of the Esperanto Association of North America upon this subject, and we hope that in the next issue we shall be able to announce that the Barcelona Congress has been postponed so as not to interfere with the Chautauqua Congress.

THE ESPERANTO ASSOCIATION OF NORTH AMERICA.

The preparations for the coming congress are in the hands of the Esperanto Association of North America which resulted from the convention of Esperantists held in Chautauqua last summer. The official address of this Association is 3981 Langley Avenue, Chicago, Illinois. Colonel George Harvey, Editor of the North American Review, has been elected president of the Association, Professor A. M. Grillon, vice-president, Mr. E. C. Reed, secretary, and Mr. E. K. Harvey, treasurer.

THE PROGRESS OF THE ASSOCIATION HAS BEEN REMARKABLE.

During July, when propaganda was inactive, there were 22 new members, in August, 55, during September, 122, and in October, up to date, 235. This, without the great movement which is taking place among the clubs who are just beginning to hold their meetings and who are holding back so as to join in a body, so that everything indicates that the membership will grow at the rate of 500 a month during the winter.

In order to make the Fifth International Congress what it should be, that is, the largest congress of Esperantists ever held, the Esperanto Association of North America need the good-will of all and specially of all those who are interested in having Chautauqua selected as the place for this great international gathering. The cost of joining the Association is only twenty-five cents a year and entails no obligation on the part of the member. If you send your name and address and twenty-five cents to the secretary, Mr. E. C. Reed, 3981 Langley Avenue, Chicago, you will help to bring about the congress and help the Association in its propaganda work.

A Short Course in Esperanto

THIRD LESSON.

EDITOR'S NOTE.—Fire at Chautauqua destroyed all accented Esperanto type which must be especially cast for us. Hence these reprinted pages contain no accented

letters this month. New type with proper accents will be manufactured for us to use in the December issue.

LA TUALETO.

La servistino supreniras al la unua etago, The maid goes up to the first floor, si eniras en la cambron de la infano. si trairas la cambron, si iras al la fenestro, si malfermas la kurtenojn, Radio da suno penetras en la cambron.

La servistino vokas la knabon, la knabo ne respondas, tial ke li dormas.

La servistino alproksimigas al la lito, si prenas la knabon per la sultro, si skuas la infanon.

La infano malfermas la okulojn, li oscedas. li sin strecas, li reekdormas.

La servistino skuas la infanon ankorau unufoje, la infano vekigas tute vere, li sin decidas, li forjetas la litkovrilojn. li saltas el la lito.

Liaj subvestoj trovigas sur sego, li alpasas al la sego, li alvenas al la sego, li prenas siajn subvestojn, li revenas al la lito, li sidigas sur la randon de la lito.

Li prenas sian kalsonon, li vestas sian kalsonon.

Li prenas strumpon, li pasigas la piedon en la strumpon, li tiras la strumpon.

THE TOILET.

she enters the room of the child, she crosses the room, she goes to the window, she opens the curtains, a beam of sunlight enters the room.

The maid calls the boy, the boy does not answer, because he sleeps.

The maid draws near the bed, she takes the boy by the shoulder, she shakes the child.

The child opens his eyes, he yawns, he stretches himself, li remetas la kapon sur sian kapkusenon, he puts his head back on his pillow, he goes to sleep again.

The maid shakes the child once more,

the child wakes up in earnest, he makes up his mind, he throws the covers aside, he jumps out of bed.

His underclothes are on a chair, he steps up to the chair, he arrives at the chair, he takes his underclothes, he goes back to the bed, he sits down on the edge of the bed.

He takes his drawers, he puts on his drawers.

He takes one stocking, he passes his foot into the stocking. he pulls on the stocking.

La strumpo kovras ciujn partojn de lia piedo,

The stocking covers all the parts of his foot,

la strumpo kovras lian kruron gis la supro the stocking covers his leg to over the kneed de la genuo,

li ellasas la strumpon, li prenas la alian strumpon,

maniero.

he lets go the stocking, he takes the other stocking, li surmetas la alian strumpon lau la sama he puts on the other stocking in the same

Li prenas la strumpligilojn, li stopligas la strumpligilojn cirkau la strumpoj,

li ellasas la strumpligilojn.

Lia pantalono kusas sur sego, li eletendas la brakon al gi, li prenas la pantalonon, li vestas la pantalonon, li krocas la zomunon de tiu ci vesto.

Farinte tion, li surmetas siajn selkojn. Tio volas diri: li pasigas la selkojn super la sultrojn, li butonumas la selkojn malantauen, li iom tiras la selkojn antauen, li butonumas la selkojn antauen, li ellasas la selkojn.

Li sercas siajn pantoflojn, li genufieksas apud la lito, li rigardas sub la liton, li vidas la pantoflojn, li eletendas la brakon, li prenas la pantoflojn, li relevigas, li piedvestas siajn pantoflojn. He takes his garters, he ties his garters around his stockings,

he lets go his garters.

His trousers lie on a chair, he stretches out his arm towards them, he takes his trousers, he puts on his trousers, he hooks the bands of that garment.

Having done this, he puts on his suspenders. This means: he passes his suspenders over his shoulders, he buttons his suspenders behind, he pulls his suspenders forward a little, he buttons his suspenders forward, he lets go his suspenders.

He looks for his slippers, he kneels by the bed, he looks under the bed, he sees his slippers, he stretches out his arm, he takes his slippers, he straightens up, he puts on his slippers.

TABLE OF CORRELATIVE WORDS.

474 Esperanto					
	Demon strative	TIA such kind of such a of that kind	TIAL for that reason for such a reason therefore	TIAM at that time at such time then	TIB in that place there yonder
	Negairos.	NENIA no kind of no, no such of no kind (not any kind of)	NENIAL for no reason for no cause	NENIAM at no time never	· NENIE in no place nowhere (not anywhere)
STATINE WORDS.	Interrogative and Relative.	KIA what kind of ? of what kind? what a! as	KIAL for what reason why? wherefore	KIAM at what time ? when	KIB in what place where
IABLE OF CORRELATIVE WORDS.	Distributive, General or Collective.	CIA, every kind of each, every (any sort of)	CIAL for every reason for all reasons	always always every time for all time ever ever (at any time)	CIE everywhere in every place (anywhere)
	. Indefinite.	IA some kind of (any) kind of some (any)	IAL for some reason for (any) reason or cause	IAM at some time. at (any) time ever	IE in some place in (any) place somewhere (anywhere)
		Quality. kind of (adjectival)	Matre. Reason for (adverbial)	Time. (adverbial)	Place. (edverbial)

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TIBL	in that manner thue, so, like (that) as in such a manner	TIES that one's	OIL	that (thing)	TIOM	that quantity so much as much as many so many	xıv	that one the former
NENIRL	in no manner in no way nohow by no means not at all	NENIES no one's	NENIO	nothing not anything	NENIOM	no quantity none none at all	NENIU	nobody no one
KIEL	in what manner how how as	KIES	KIO	what (thing) which that which	KIOM	what quantity how much how many	KIU	who, he who which, that what one
7870	(in) every manner (in) every way all ways	CIES every one's	OID	everything all things all	CIOM	every quantity all, the whole all of it	CIU	each one each ciuj—all, all the everybody
707	in some way (in any manner) somehow (anyhow)	IES somebody's (anyhody's)	(any one's)	something (anything)	NOI	some quantity somewhat rather, some a little (any)	IU	some one (any one)
	. (adverbial)	Possession (pronominal)	Thing	(not specified) substantival or pronominal	Quantity	(adverbial) ·	Individuality	Person or thing (pronominal)

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Issued Monthly with Illustrations

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Volume 53

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INDEX

FOR

THE NEW YORK HAUTAUQUAN PUBLIC LIBRARY VOLUME 53. December, 1908-February, 1909 ASTOR, LENOX AND TILDEN FOUNDATIONS. 17 9

Adoption, 249.

Armies the Real Promoters of Peace, 19.

Art (See Dutch Art and Artists).

BARROWS, MARY ALICE. The Progress of the German Woman, 389. C. L. S. C. Round Table: A Letter to the Seniors, 131; A Word Study, 132; An Art Course for Graduates, 133; A Home Circle in Brazil, 134; Programs, 140; News from Readers and Circles, 144; The Class of 1912, 278; A 1908 Chautauquan in the Argen-144; The Class of 1912, 270; A 1908 Chautauquan in the Argentine Republic, 279; Chautauqua's Message to Sweden, 281; A 1908 Point of View, 282; From the President of 1903, 283; Programs, 285; News from Readers and Circles, 290; Some Suggestions, 418; The Study of a Novel, 419; Side Lights on "Man and the Earth," 421; Death of Mr. Clifford Lanier, 422; Suggestive Program, 429; News from Readers and Circles, 433.

Christmas, 112. Christmas Poems: The Virgin's Song to Her Baby Christ, 129;

Luther's Cradle Hymn, 129.

CHURCH, WILLIAM CONANT. Armies the Real Promoters of Peace,

COPPEE, FRANCOIS. Adoption, 249.

Dutch Art and Artists: IV. The Painters of Domestic Scenes, 60; V. The Painters of the Peasantry, 230; VI. The Landscape and Marine Painters, 366.

EDWARDS, GEORGE WHARTON. A Reading Journey in the Hollow

Land, 38, 201, 339.

Esperanto, 150, 299, 441.
Friendship of Nations, The: Armies the Real Promoters of Peace, 19; The Human Harvest, 178; International Aspects of Socialism, 194; What Is International Law, 322; The Sanction of International Law, 330.

German Kaiser, The, 122.

German Songs and Song Writers of the Struggle with Napoleon,

German Woman, The Progress of the, 389.
Grotius Hugo: The Foundation of International Law, 411.

Highways and Byways: After the Election, 3; The Referendum in Maine, 5; World's War on Tuberculosis, 6; The Election in Canada, 8; Canada's Old-Age Annuity Scheme, 9; The Averted Crisis in the Balkans and in Europe, 10; China's New Rulers and Her Future, 15; Note and Comment, 17; Future of the Democratic Party, 163; Labor and the Minor Parties, 165; Higher Education and the Color Line, 166; The New Michigan

Constitution, 168; The Progress of the Divorce Evil, 169; Personal Rule vs. Constitutionalism, 171; Cuba's Third Election and Future, 173; America and Japan as Moral Allies, 174; Note and Comment, 176; The Sentencing of Gompers and Mitchell, 307; The Demand for a Cleaner Press, 309; Publicity and Railroad Control, 310; Conservation and the First Steps, 312; "Genu'ne" Tariff Revision, 313; Will the Lords Reform Themselves, 315; The First Ottoman Parliament, 317; Italy's Appalling Disaster, 319; Note and Comment, 320.

Hollow Land, A Reading Journey in the: IV. The Island of Walcheren and Zeeland, The Dead Cities, Rotterdam, 38; V. Utrecht, Amsterdam, Broek, Zaandam, Monnikendam, Marken, Volendam, and Edam, 201; VI. Alkmaar, the Cheese Market—
The Forbidden Kermis—Hoorn—Enkhuyzen—The Island of Utrk—Stavoven—Hindelsonen—The Poer

Urk—Stavoren—Hindeloopen—The Boer.

Human Harvest The 178. International Aspects of Socialism, 194. International Law, The Sanction of, 330. International Law, What Is, 322. JORDAN, DAVID STAR. The Human Harvest, 178.

Library Shelf, 112, 265, 411.

MAARTENS, MAARTEN. The Summer Christmas, 93.

Madeleine, The Church of the, 408.

Peace, International War or, (See The Friendship of Nations).

ROGERS, HENRY WADE. What Is International Law, 322.

ROOT, ELIHU. The Sanction of International Law, 330.

Sainte-Chapelle: A Medieval Shrine, The, 80.

STMONS A M. International Assects of Socieliem 104. SIMONS, A. M. International Aspects of Socialism, 194.

Socialism, International Aspects of, 194.
SPENCER, EDWINA. The Sainte-Chapelle: A Medieval Shrine, 80;

The Church of the Madeleine, 408.

STEAD, W. T. Some Impressions of the German Kaiser, 122. Songs and Song Writers of the Struggle with Napoleon, 256. Summer Christmas, The, 93.

Talk About Books, 153, 303, 445. Tatyana Borissovna and Her Nephew, 395. Turgeney, Ivan. Tatyana Borissovna and Her Nephew, 395.

Vesper Hour, 117, 271.

VINCENT, CHANCELLOR JOHN H. The Vesper Hour, 117, 271. Visscher, Tesselschade; A Dutch Poetess, 265.

Zug, George Breed. Dutch Art and Artists, 60, 230, 366.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

C. L. S. C. Round Table: Outlook from Presbyterian Church. Brazil, 135; Jesuit College, Brazil, 136; Colonnade, Chautauqua, after fire, 138, 139; Church Mercedes, Argentina, 279; Swedish Paper, 280; Nobel Peace Hall, 424.

Paper, 280; Nobel Peace Hall, 424.

Dutch Art and Artists: "The Guitar Lesson," Ter Borch, 63; "The Visit," Ter Borch, 64; "An Officer and a Young Lady," Metsu, 65; "An Old Toper," Metsu, 66; "The Buttery," Pieter de Hooch, 67; "The Country House," Pieter de Hooch, 68: "Young Woman Opening a Casement," Vermeer, 69; "Man and Woman Drinking," Vermeer, 70; "Tavern Scene," Brouwer, 237; "Bad Company," Jan Steen, 238; "The Family Meal," Steen, 239; "The Feast of St. Nicholas," Steen, 240; "Peasants in an Inn," Van Ostade, 241; "The School Master," Van Ostade, 242; "The Wayside Inn," 243; "Le Benedicite," Maes, 244; "The Spinner," 245," "Haarlem from the Dunes," Ruisdael, 306;

Waterfall, Ruisdael; View on Rhine, Ruisdael; The Avenue, Middelharnis, Hobbema; Stormy Sea, Ruisdael; Oak Forest, Ruisdael; Beach, Scheveningen, van de Velde; Watermill, Hobbema; Quiet Sea, van de Capelle; Cannon Shot, van de Velde;

Village Street, Hobbema; pages 371-380.

Friendship of Nations: "War Against War," Ten Kate, 2; War and Peace Footing of Armies of World, 24; Modern 16-inch Rifle,

33; "Peace Spiking the Last Gun," 331; "After War," Ten Kate, 332. German Kaiser, The; "The Nightmare of the Globe" (Cartoon), 125; Three Generations, 127.

Heidelberg-Night Illumination, 410.

Holland. A Reading Journey in the Hollow-Land: Walcheren peasant costumes, 39, 40, 41; Boats on River near Rotterdam, 42; On the Scheldt, Flushing, 43; Headdress, Goes, 44; Dutch Dyke, 45; Peasant Costume, Veere, 46; Peasant Type, Goes, 46; Canal at Flushing, 47; De Groote Kerk, Dordrecht, 48; 46; Canal at Flushing, 47; De Groote Kerk, Dordrecht, 48; Ancient City Gate, Dordrecht, 49; Panorama of Rotterdam, 50; View of River Maas, Rotterdam, 51; Bridge over the Maas, Rotterdam, 52; Typical Scene, Rotterdam, 53; The Delft Gate, Rotterdam, 54; Houses, Volendam, 162; Canal, Amsterdam, 203; Bourse, Amsterdam, 204; Canal and Street, Utrecht, 205; Cathedral, Utrecht, 206; The Rijks Museum, 207; View of Canal Entering Amsterdam, 208; Royal Palace, Amsterdam, 208; Royal Palace, Amsterdam, 200; Royal Palace, Amsterdam, 200; Royal Palace, Amsterdam, 200; Royal Palace, R 200; Bridge over Amstel, 210; House and Garden, Broek in Waterland, 212; Mill, Zaandam, 213; Views Monnikendam and Marken, 216; Scenes in Marken, 217; Washing Clothes, Marken, 218; Peasants, Volendam, 219; Boats, Volendam, 220; Cheese Market, Alkmaar, 341; Quiet Spot, Delft, 342; The Kermis, 342; Alkmaar and Hoorn, 343; Canal in Alkmaar, 344; Fishing Boats, Hoorn, 345; Mending Nets, Urk, 346; Tromp's Monument, Delft, 347; The Spaarne, Haarlem, 348; The Cathedral, Dort, 348; Headdress, Stavoren, Hindeloopen, Friesland, 349; The Amsterdam Gate, Haarlem, 350; Leeuwarden, 351; Dutch Children, Maarken, 351; Sewing School, 352; Offer of Marriage, 353; Holland in Winter, 354; Wealthy Farmer, 354. 209; Bridge over Amstel, 210; House and Garden, Broek in

Farmer, 354.
International War or Peace. (See Friendship of Nations.)

Madeleine, The, 409.

Rembrandt: "The Holy Family," 130.
Sainte-Chapelle: A Medieval Shrine, The: Blanche of Castile,
Saint Louis (Louis IX), 83; The Lower Chapel, 85; Upper
Chapel, 86; Upper Chapel with Rose Window, 87; Exterior of Chapel, 89; Palais de Justice, 90. PORTRAITS

Eliot, Charles W., 12.

Lanier, Clifford, 423. Taft, William H., 11.

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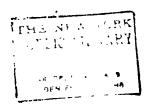
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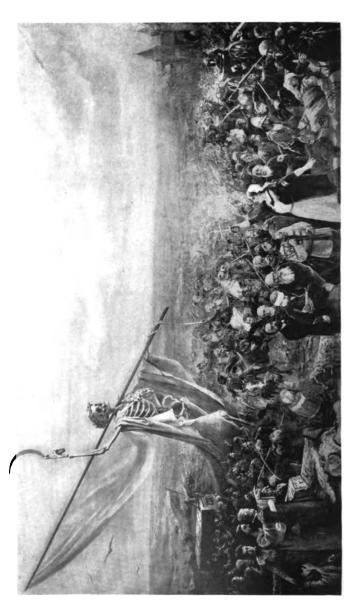
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"War Against War." By Jan Ten Kate. (See "Armies the Real Promoters of Peace," page 19).

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Death is seen marching along, decorated with laurel coronet, medals, and other badges of honour. In his wake come the poor people who must sh the means and sinews of War. The Christian mind presents to the diplomat and statesman the fruits of their work, in the horrors of War. Tolstoi lends his beneficent arm to rescue and protect suffering humanity. Bertha von Suttner lifts in its defence the cross (made from a broken sword). Emperors, Kings and Presidents are approaching the idea of Universal Peace. The wounded soldies beconciled in death to the former enemy and Despair furnish the means and sinews of War. rate upon the defeated General.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

Vol. 53.

DECEMBER, 1908.

No. 1.



AFTER an unusual and remarkable campaign, a campaign relatively free from bitterness and objectionable personalities, the voters of the country rendered their verdict on November third. The verdict was significant from any point of view.

The people elected William H. Taft, president and James S. Sherman, vice-president. They elected a Republican House of Representatives, reducing slightly the majority of the party now in power in that body.

The states that gave their electoral votes to the successful ticket are these: California, Connecticut, Delaware, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Missouri, Minnesota, Montana, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Utah Vermont, Washington, Wisconsin, West Virginia, Wyoming.

All but one of the "doubtful" states were thus carried by the Republicans, the exception being Nebraska, which gave Mr. Bryan its electoral vote, as it did in 1896. In the West generally the Democrats made gains, but not sufficient gains to overcome the Republican preponderance of recent years. In the East Mr. Bryan scarcely improved his position, the old distrust, growing out of the silver question, still manifestly clinging to him.

Highways and Byways

4

The great surprise of the election was the failure of the "labor vote" to make any perceptible impression on the result. Though the leaders of the American Federation of Labor, an organization with over 2,000,000 adherents or members, had urged the support of the Bryan ticket, and though hundreds of trade unions and labor papers had indorsed the Democratic candidate, the great industrial centers of the country, and especially New York and Chicago, gave Taft majorities of various sizes. The carrying of Greater New York by Taft was the most unexpected of all the notable features of the election.

. It is a cause for gratification that the verdict was decisive and that the popular plurality for the Taft ticket was so large (over 1,100,000) that none of the practical politicians ventured to ascribe the outcome to corruption or coercion. people preferred Taft to Bryan on his record and his known characteristics, and their will is law. If they had not regarded Mr. Taft as a progressive and trustworthy man they would have chosen Mr. Bryan to continue the reformatory work of the last several years. But they believed Mr. Taft's assurances and had no fear of stagnation or reaction under him. The next administration and the next Congress are definitely committed to tariff revision, to additional railroad legislation, to modernization of the trust laws, to war on political and corporate dishonesty. The struggle for popular rule and economic justice, for equality of opportunity and honest representative government, must go on, and in it the defeated candidate, Mr. Bryan, will have an important part. His great gifts will remain at the service of the people, whether he remains in private life or enters public life at some future time.

The election, in brief, indicates merely that the majority of the voters regard the Republican candidates and party as safer instruments of progress. The differences between the two great parties, as we have repeatedly said, were never less marked or less important than now. Both candidates for the presidency were able and attractive men, and to both the people listened gladly and enthusiastically. There is no repudiation of Mr. Bryan's essential political views in his third

defeat. There is no personal disgrace in it for him. The Republican party must proceed with the execution of the policies that the people have indorsed, and the aid of the minority party, or of the "opposition," should be frankly sought in that work. Honest criticism and fair discussion by a strong minority are wholesome in a republican government.



The Referendum in Maine.

It is generally supposed that the West is radical and the East conservative. It was deemed natural that Oregon and Oklahoma should adopt the initiative and referendum as checks on legislative bad faith or subserviency to special privilege, but Maine, "rock-ribbed" Republican Maine, surely would reject what many regard as "a blow to representative government." No, she has not rejected it. At her state election an amendment establishing in that state the referendum and the initiative was added to the Constitution by the remarkable vote of 51,991 to 23,712. The majority for the amendment was nearly four times the majority of the Republican candidate for governor. And this majority was given in spite of the arguments and opposition of Senator Hale, who is loved and respected by his state, and of arguments of other leading Republicans circulated as "literature" during the campaign.

In one form or another the referendum and initiative now exist in South Dakota, Illinois, Oregon, Montana, Ohio, Oklahoma, and Maine. Oregon and Oklahoma have the most advanced forms of direct popular legislation. In Ohio and Illinois there is only an advisory vote on questions of public policy. Maine has taken a middle course. Any law or statute may be suspended upon petition of ten thousand voters until the people pass upon it. No act takes effect until it is ninety days old and the voters have failed to petition for its submission. Twelve thousand voters may by petition present any bill to the Legislature and secure its submission,

and amendments to any such bill voted by the Legislature must be ratified at the polls.

The number of signatures required in either case is high, but the amendment is nevertheless a sign of "radicalism" even in the extremely conservative East. The people of Maine evidently wish to have firmer control of their agents in the Legislature. As "principals" and "sovereigns" they have the right to restrict the privileges of their representatives. The progress of direct legislation is merely a part of the movement for popular rule and popular revolt against bossism, monopoly, fraud, and corruption in politics and government.



The World's War On Tuberculosis.

Peace has its victories as well as war, and among these none are of greater moment than the victories over dreaded contagious diseases. Cholera, small pox and other plagues have lost their terror in progressive and efficiently governed countries. Russia has had a severe cholera epidemic this year, and one somewhat less severe last year, but she is notoriously misgoverned. Lack of funds, of preventive measures, of efficiency, of discipline, accounts for the rapid progress of the plague in that unhappy empire. The advanced countries are now able to protect themselves fully against cholera invasions and epidemics.

But it is different with "the white plague," consumption in its various forms. All countries suffer from it, all need greater and more systematic efforts to combat it, all feel that they are backward and remiss. It is said that the United States loses at least 160,000 lives annually through such negligence. What the whole civilized world loses, in men and in treasure, is incalculable.

The recent international congress on tuberculosis at Washington has given a great impetus to the warfare against the white plague. It was a congress of notables and leaders in medicine, in science, in hygiene, in humane and unselfish

work. It discussed every phase of the question and brought together, in an extraordinary "exhibit," an astonishing variety of models, appliances, maps, charts, data, plans, etc., as evidence and illustrations of actual or possible progress. The most dramatic feature of the congress, perhaps, was the debate on the so-called Koch theory of the essential difference between bovine tuberculosis and human, and the slight danger of human infection from the milk of tubercular cows, for example. Most of the delegates believed that Professor Koch was wrong, but he stoutly maintained his position and demanded proof. There was very little actual proof-a few doubtful cases of transmission of bovine tuberculosis to human beings. The rest consisted of suspicion, inference, analogy, fear. The . advisability of practical measures to prevent "possible" infection Dr. Koch does not dispute; his interest is centered in the scientific question. And he urged his opponents to continue diligent investigation and bring proof of their position to Rome in 1911, the year of the next congress.

Aside from this, the value of the congress lay in its accentuation of the social and industrial aspects of consumption. The disease, it is now known, is curable if detected and attacked in its first stage. But the cure depends on a score of factors and conditions—living arrangements, work, food, air, climate, associations, etc. The question of preventing and curing consumption is a question for the family, the employer, the trade union, the railroad company, the charity society, the settlement, the church, the city, the county, the state and the nation. Each has its work to do in the broad field. It is necessary to build sanatoria, to provide proper food, to ventilate homes, factories, cars, and offices, to spread elementary knowledge of the subject among the masses, to insure prompt attention to incipient sufferers, to enforce health ordinances and laws for the registration of patients, and, if necessary, their isolation. It is necessary to establish dispensaries for the poor consumptives, as has been done in Boston, Chicago and elsewhere. Co-operation of many forces is imperatively required, and happily there are signs that it is growing apace. Many American states, cities and hospitals

have received medals from the congress for their excellent work in one or more of the directions just specified. And the campaign has but just begun. Not more than half a dozen years back the indifference and the ignorance, even in intelligent circles, regarding tuberculosis were profound and alarming.



The Election in Canada.

Our neighbors of the dominion voted for members of the House of Representatives on September 26, and their pro-liberal verdict was not a surprise to either of the parties. The campaign had been one "without issues," strictly speaking. That is, as matters now stand there are no vital differences between the liberals and the conservatives of Canada. A decade ago there were such differences, chiefly with regard to protection and nationalism, imperialism and tariff preferences for England. The liberal leader, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, was then a free trader or revenue tariff man, while the conservatives were ardent protectionists. But Laurier, made premier in 1896, gradually adopted the protective policy and has for years been a champion of national development and internal improvement. He has remained an opponent of extreme imperialism and of the schemes of tariff-union with the mother country, and on the whole his sympathies are with the British liberals. His policies and legislation, however, have deprived the conservatives, who have been out of power for twelve years, of their platform and leading issues.

In the recent campaign the liberals, with Premier Laurier at their head, pointed to the wonderful progress of the dominion in the last decade, to the great railroad and waterway projects undertaken, to the growth of manufactures and population and revenue, and to the laws for labor, old-age, etc., as arguments for keeping them in power and enabling them to complete their work. The conservatives, led by Mr. Borden, an able and vigorous man, indorsed the constructive and

reformatory work of the liberals, but went even farther in the advocacy of government regulation, social reform legislation and national development, and charged the government with extravagance, inefficiency, and weakness. Corruption had been found in some of the departments of the government, and that was largely ascribed to "spoils," favoritism, nepotism, and general laxity. In fact, the conservative campaign was made altogether an anti-spoils and anti-fraud campaign, a campaign for merit and efficiency in administration. That Sir Wilfrid was honest, patriotic, and enlightened, and that his leadership had been successful and inspiring, could not be denied; but it was urged that he could not, with advancing age, control the whole government and the office-holding class subject to it.

What the voters thought of the situation may be inferred from the results of the election. The liberals were returned to power and given another term in which to complete their work. Their majority in the House will be smaller, but for all practical purposes it will be sufficient. The work of railroad and water way extension will be continued, and in regard to the tariff preference, senate reform, control of corporations, etc., the legislation will constitute no departure from the policy of the last decade. The progress of Canada is assured and would have been in any event.

6.3

Canada's Old-Age Annuity Scheme.

As a nation Canada is very youthful, and her resources are scarcely scratched. Her population is still small, and she finds it advisable to subsidize desirable immigration. The question of old-age pensions, so vital in "mature" and overburdened countries cannot be urgent in undeveloped, expanding countries where the demand for labor exceeds the supply and wages are high.

Yet Canada has been influenced by the agitation the world over for better provision for "industrial veterans"

and for old age generally, and her parliament, after considerable study and discussion, recently passed a government bill establishing a form of old-age pensions that differs little, in principle, from the Massachusetts plan of old-age insurance through the mutual savings banks. It would be idle to argue against one scheme, adapted to one set of conditions, on the basis of another, suited to totally different conditions. But, comparisons aside, the Canadian scheme is interesting and suggestive.

Its essential object is to encourage thrift and foresight, to make the reasonably prudent man his own old-age pensioner. The government will accept payments and create an annuity fund. Annuities will not in any event be paid to persons under fifty-five, and in no circumstances will the annual amount exceed six hundred dollars to one person or married couple. The contributors may pay in the whole amount at fifty-five or any other age and become pensioners for life, or they make small annual or monthly payments into the treasury.

The government gives nothing from its own funds. It merely guarantees the pensioners' money and fair interest on it. In case of death prior to the maturing of the annuity the total paid in will be returned to the estate with three per cent interest. For cases of physical disability different provisions are made by the act.

The administrative features of the scheme are yet to be worked out and set forth. As in Massachusetts, the question is how popular the scheme will be and whether, without agency work and expensive pushing and soliciting, the majority of those most in need of old-age pensions or annuities will take advantage of the government's fund and facilities.



The Averted Crisis in the Balkans and in Europe.

Recent events in the Balkans, the storm center of Europe, have illustrated both the extreme delicacy of the diplomatic



William H. Taft, President-elect of the United States.



President Charles W. Eliot of Harvard University, recently resigned.

"balance," or the apparent instability of the peace of the world, and the deep, real aversion to war on the part of the great powers. The superficial moral of the recent crisis is not the true moral. There is much vague talk of German intrigue and ambition, of dangerous hostility between England and the ruling classes of the Teutonic empire, of the imminence of a terrible conflict. Had any first-class power desired war, it certainly could have found a cause or pretext for it in the sudden moral and political disturbance which the anti-Turkish steps of Bulgaria and Austria precipitated early in October. One imprudent act, one aggressive utterance, and a clash of arms would have become inevitable. The situation was full of peril; inflammable material, so to speak, lay on every hand; suspicion, fear, jealousy, resentment and like emotions had abundant scope. Yet the desire for peace was so strong that the dreaded explosion was averted and the obstacles to a reasonable solution of the problem were overcome one by one with patience and skill.

There is much to regret and deplore in the events in question, but even their most unfortunate phases have tended to emphasize the world's progress toward peace, national restraint and reasonableness in foreign policy.

It is a great pity and an instance of the irony of fate that Turkey should have suffered in prestige just when her constitutional and progressive forces were seeking to reform the abuses of the old regime of tyranny, persecution, fanaticism, and corruption, and to establish toleration, equal rights, and honest, just administration. No one believes that Bulgaria would have proclaimed her absolute independence, or Austria the complete incorporation and annexation of the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, if the revolution had not taken place and the "Sick Man" of Europe had not given signs of recovery. In fact, it is the announced desire of the new, the reformed Turkey to recombine and consolidate its territories, harmonize racial differences, grant autonomy and liberty to all, that alarmed Bulgaria and Austria. They realized that they must strike while the conditions were still chaotic, and that a reformed Turkey would be a strong Turkey.

That assaults on the territorial integrity and the sovereign rights of Turkey might discredit the constitutional cabinet and the whole reform movement, encourage reaction and fanaticism, was a consideration those powers did not permit to influence them. "Business is business," evidently, and liberty and reform must not interfere with schemes of selfaggrandizement. Happily, at this writing there is no reason to think that Turkey will again lose her constitution as she lost one because of the war with Russia in the seventies of the last century. Her present guides and rulers are evidently sagacious, reasonable, and enlightened statesmen. They say that Turkey has enough territory and more than a sufficiency of racial and sectional conflicts to occupy her attention, and that she does not want war with any power, great or small. She does, however, expect some compensation, moral and material, for the losses so suddenly and lawlessly inflicted upon her. In Bulgaria the political change of status is merely a "paper" change. Bulgaria has been independent since the Congress of Berlin in 1877, and the suzerainty of the Sultan was nominal. She has paid no tribute, and has enjoyed perfect autonomy. But the Proclamation of Independence was a violation of the Treaty of Berlin and raised a question of international good faith, of the value of agreements, of the moral authority of the concert of Europe. Moreover, Bulgaria had seized a section of the Oriental Railroad running through Eastern Roumelia, part of her territory, and had refused to surrender it to its rightful owner, the Turkish Government. For this compensation must be given, and doubtless will be.

As for Austria, her annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, provinces which the Congress of Berlin put under her jurisdiction to administer as trustee in the interest of order, security and justice, was altogether unwarranted. It was a gross violation of the treaty and an outrage on the population of the provinces. Reformed Turkey would have given them autonomy, which they would have preferred to Austrian domination. What intrigue and trickery had prepared the actions of the two states no one knows. The world was

certainly startled by them, and even Germany protested that she had not expected or known of the double "coup." At any rate, all the powers at once realized that to prevent strife and bloodshed, with the probable reopening of the whole question of the Turk in Europe and the division of his possessions there, another congress of the powers was necessary, as well as a revision of the mutilated and torn treaty of Berlin. The holding of such a congress was not free from danger, but neither was the alternative, for Servia, Albania, Montenegro, Greece, Crete, Macedonia, and neighboring principalities, states, or provinces were belligerent and angry, and some of them were clamoring for invasion of Austria and the "rescue" of the provinces.

After much hesitation and private negotiation the decision to summon a congress was reached by England, France, and Russia, but there are obstacles yet to overcome, and the idea may be modified or abandoned. Delicate and perilous questions will be carefully avoided by the powers; no attempt will be made to undo what has been done; but every effort will be made to adjust matters and allay apprehension.



China's New Rulers and Her Future

Kipling's famous line, "The East is East and the West is West," must have come to the mind of many when they read the first news from Peking telling of the death of the young emperor and the fatal illness of the empress dowager, the masterful and remarkable woman who had controlled the destinies of the great empire, either as the power behind the throne or as the actual ruler, for about half a century. There was a strange, mysterious, suspicious atmosphere about the whole situation, and the suspicion was not relieved by the subsequent announcement of the death of the empress. In fact, there were and are rumors of "foul play," of poison, of court plots, and so on.

The great outside world, however, is concerned with the essential facts, and they are dramatic enough. Two figures are gone. Kwang-Hsu, the late emperor, was not a man of force and capacity, though at one time, in 1808, he displayed liberal leanings, summoned progressive mandarins and inaugurated a reform movement that was to affect the political, economic, judicial and social conditions of China. His weakness, however, was such that he could not even save the lives of his friends and servants, and the empress dowager, Tsze-Hsi-An, beheaded or otherwise got rid of them and took the reins of power out of his hands. Reaction reigned for a time, but finally the logic of events compelled her to accept the advice of more progressive statesmen and to authorize gradual changes. Early in November she celebrated her seventy-third birthday anniversary, and demonstrations in her honor were held all over China. She seemed in good health and spirits. Only a few weeks before she had issued or sanctioned the issue of a so-called constitution, with a preamble and bill of rights. Her death was sudden and unexpected, and her disappearance from the scene of Chinese diplomacy and politics is an event of historic importance. She had, however, issued decrees naming Prince Chun, a brother of the late emperor, a man of promise and culture, regent and his infant son heir presumptive. Thus the Manchu dynasty will continue to rule, and no momentous departure is to be looked for, unless rebellion and civil war break out. The liberal element seems dominant at present, and though the regent is more amiable than strong, he is credited with an earnest desire to continue the reform policies of his late brother and of the more enlightened mandarins and counsellors.

Reverting to the recent "constitution," reports regarding the intention of the Peking court to grant representative and constitutional government to the people of the "celestial empire" have been frequent since the termination of the war in Manchuria, but they have been vague and perplexing. In the West they have received little if any credence, though all realize that there is a mental and moral stir in the "unchanging empire," and that Westernization is gradually taking place

there. It appears, however, that the talk of constitutional government now rests on a more tangible and trustworthy basis.

The constitution promulgated in September, and its preamble—a rhetorical, lengthy, confused tissue of words and promises—definitely state that in nine years the empire is to have a parliament, a ministry with a premier at its head, and a truly constitutional form of government. The transition is to begin at once, for a program is mapped out which should make the intervening years busy and strenuous ones. Each year is to see some reforms, some steps toward the goal, and the current year is to witness the revision of the criminal code, the reorganization of the finances, and the election of local assemblymen. The government, indeed, with oriental extravagance, assures the people of "boundless daily improvement" henceforth.

The constitution includes a bill of rights that must startle the natives, though it is peculiarly worded and may not mean much in actual operation. The same may be said of every other part of the strange document. This much alone is certain—that the government, of its own motion, has solemnly and formally pledged itself to establish constitutional government in nine years and to go about the task immediately.

Whether the ruling classes of the empire have surrendered to the modern spirit and will permit the gradual transformation promised, or whether there will be further attempts at nullification and reaction, the next year or two should answer positively. The West remains dubious and skeptical, but is quite willing to be pleasantly surprised.



Note and Comment

Between September 8 and 12 last an International Pure Food Congress was held in Geneva, Switzerland, at which were delegates representing thirty-two governments. Many interesting addresses were given by prominent men, the emphasis being laid upon the necessity of securing commercial purity of foods, not absolute chemical purity which is usually attainable only in theory.

Highways and Byways

18

The French suffragettes threaten to petition parliament to be allowed to enter ruilitary service. Military service is but a logical extension of woman's rights, asserts one of the leaders, and the training should prove invaluable in future contests for the franchise.



The German Kaiser, like a modern Cassandra, seems to be fated to have his most heartfelt assertions doubted by his neighbors. Certainly his vehement pleas for international peace are constantly regarded as hypocritical by the great European rivals of Germany. France professes to see a Machiavellian purpose in each noble sentiment to which he gives expression and a large part of the English press is equally cynical. The English attitude has recently stirred the Kaiser to warm protest, by means of an interview with an English diplomat.

Protesting anew his ardent desire for the most amicable relations with England the Kaiser took occasion to discuss his attitude during the Boer War. Far from sympathizing with the Boers the Kaiser asserts he used his influence to prevent a coalition of France and Russia against England. Further, he even went so far as to send his grandmother, the late Queen Victoria, a proposed plan for the conduct of the South African campaign which he and his military advisers had framed. This plan, says the Kaiser, was very similar to that adopted by Lord Roberts shortly afterwards, the implication being that Lord Roberts was indebted to the Kaiser for his general plan of attack.

This interview instead of pacifying English sentiment served only to inflame it. Patriotic Englishmen were up in arms at the bare suggestion that Lord Roberts' success was due in any part to other than his own military genius. The Anglo-German relations have therefore been anything but improved by the Kaiser's latest efforts to assume the rôle of European pacificator.





Armies the Real Promoters of Peace.*

By Colonel William Conant Church

Editor of The Army and Navy Journal.

THE question of peace or war is one that so vitally concerns the prosperity and even the very existence of a nation that it would seem to be the bounden duty of every citizen to study with intelligence and candor, and without prejudice, the facts concerning war and the means of avoiding war. The horrors of war are sufficiently appalling to make it difficult to understand why anyone should wish to exaggerate them, as has been done by the "Universal Peace Society," in a pamphlet containing an article copied from the Springfield Republican (Mass.) published some time ago and since circulated to the extent of many thousands. In this article we are told that 40,000 men lay dead and dying on the field of Gettysburg, -a foolish as well as false statement, for a reference to the nearest encyclopaedia would show that the total number killed and mortally wounded on both sides during the three days' fight at Gettysburg was much less than one fourth of the 40,000. It is difficult to say whether statements such as this, and others equally misleading and mischievous coming from the professional advocates of peace-at-any-price, are the result of an ignorance which discredits the intelligence of

^{*}Of the earlier articles of this series, "The European Equilibrium and the Peace of the World," by Victor S. Yarros, appeared in the September Chautauquan; "Danger Points Around the Globe," by Victor S. Yarros, October; "The Story of the Peace Movement," by Benjamin F. Trueblood, November.

their authors or of a deliberate attempt to mislead. One constantly repeated statement of like character, and one involving the crime of libel as well as carrying the sting of malice, is to the effect that wars are provoked by military men to promote their own advantage. Though the proof of this statement has been repeatedly challenged, not one single fact has been cited by anyone in support of it, while the record evidence of its cruel injustice is overwhelming. An association of nearly half a century in war and in peace, on terms of intimate personal acquaintance, with nearly all the great soldiers and sailors who during that period have borne our flag aloft, qualifies the writer to bear testimony on this subject. In no single instance has he ever heard one of these patriotic men express any other sentiment than that of repugnance to war and a sincere desire to prevent it.

Witness the establishment of friendly relations with Japan by our navy under Perry; witness the terms and the circumstances of the surrender at Appomattox and the subsequent settlement by Grant, the author of the Appomattox Treaty, of difficulties with England which seemed to have in them the almost certain threat of war. Grant's action after the surrender at Vicksburg, in ordering his bands to play "Old Hundred" so that the vanquished might join with the victors in song; Captain "Jack" Phillips's action at Santiago, in telling his sailors to cease cheering in the presence of the humiliated and dying Spaniards; these, and like incidents which might be multiplied indefinitely, declare the spirit which actuates our fighting men, a spirit which, if it were universal, would prevent the wars which arise from the rivalries of commerce, the aspirations of national growth and the antagonisms of diplomacy, for all of which the civilian is solely responsible. The demon of war cannot be exorcised as the Chinese deal with their dragons, by sounding drums and beating tom-toms, and the foolish conception that we are to prevent war by denouncing everything in the nature of preparation for war is of this nature. Friendly interchanges between nations and treaties of arbitration cannot prevent war. It needs but a word to turn the dearest friends into mortal enemies, and paper agree-

ments can be torn up whenever they interfere with national or dynastic aspirations, as has been shown recently in the case of the treaty of Berlin.

How, then, can we avoid war? The military men are agreed in declaring, as Washington did in his day, that the best security against war is preparation for war, and experience would seem to show that they are right. The comparative prolongation of the periods of peace has been contemporaneous with the adoption of the idea of universal militia training. For the substitution of nations in arms for the former system of an army of hired soldiers we are indebted to the people instead of to their rulers; just as we are in a sense indebted to the people for the creation of standing armies in place of the still worse feudal system of the middle ages. The crowning of Charles VII. at Rheims as the result of the popular movement under Joan of Arc was the prelude to the creation by Charles of the first standing army, and it was the French Convention created by the Revolution which in 1708 went so far as to declare that every citizen should be a soldier and every soldier a citizen, thus establishing the present continental system of universal military service: a principle whose application is certainly as old as the time of David, in whose military organization of the Kingdom of Israel will be found not only the germ but the full development of the French and German systems of today. These systems establish authority upon the secure foundation of citizenship, and not that of special privilege, as in the days of feudalism. A nation trained to arms can never be made the unresisting victim of the merely personal interests and ambitions of a ruler as in former days.

In the countries where universal service prevails it is held that military duty is the discharge of a debt due to the State; hence the pay the soldier receives is merely nominal. Thus the exaction of compulsory service relieves the treasury of a country like Germany of the heavy charge made against our military treasury for pay, superior rations and accommodations, and for pensions, which we require to tempt the recruit. Germany obtains its immense, and its immensely effective army for a sum not at all in proportion to what ours costs us.

If we include the appropriation for pensions the cost of the German army and navy is less than our own.

The contests of war are now between armed nations and not between monarchs; they are provoked by national aspirations and not by dynastic ambitions. The enormous economic changes involved in a war between nations, and the direct personal interest each citizen has in the question whether or not he shall risk his life on the field of battle, creates an enormous conservative interest in favor of peace. The extent to which the people of the continental nations are interested in the maintenance of peace or war is indicated by the table which follows, showing the military establishments of twenty-two of the principal nations, the number of guns they have ready for service and the term of service in each nation or of liability to service. Military service is voluntary in Great Britain, including India, in the United States, and in China. In Belgium, Holland, Mexico, Norway, and Sweden it is part by conscription and part voluntary. In the other countries mentioned in the table service is compulsory. The term of service, or liability to service, is shown in the last column where A = Active armies; R = Reserve; Lt = Landwehr or Territorial army; L|| = Landsturm or Territorial reserve.

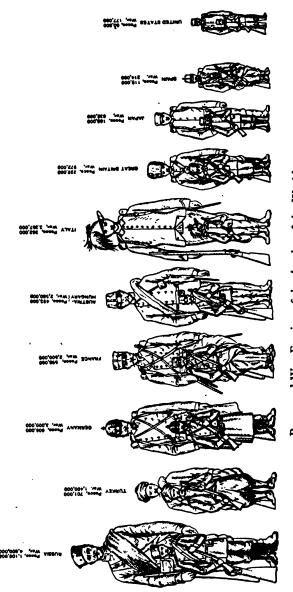
Nation	Peace	War	Guns (Approxi-	Term of Service or Liability	
Nation	Footing	Footing	Number)		Total
Austria Belgium,	409,000 49,909	2,234,000 143,000	1,912 204	3 A + 7 R + 2 L ‡ + 10 L	22
Bulgaria	57,720		462	8 A + 5 R 2 or 3 A+8 or 6 R+7 L ‡+8 or 9 L	13 25
China	About	100,000	trained	men	-0
Denmark	14,000		96	1 or 11 A + 71 or 62 R + 8 Lt	16
France	604,350	2,516,000	3,720	3 A + 10 R + 6 Lt + 6 L	25
Great Britain	132,500		1,194	7 or 8 A + 5 or 4 R, 3 A + 9 R	12
India	146,645	222,219	336	From 3 years upward for natives	
Germany		3,260,000		2 or 3 A + 4 R + 5 Lt + 16 L	28
Greece	22,104			2 A + 8 R + 8 Lt + 10 L	28
Holland				1 A + 1 R + 3 Lt + 10 L	
Italy Japan	220,000	3,330,000		2 to 5 A + 7 or 4 R + 10 L‡	19
Mexico	29,904	800,000 146,500		$3 A + 4 R + 10 L \ddagger + 13 L \parallel \dots$	23 30
Norway	30,900			50 days A + 6 R + 6 Lt + 4 L1	16
Roumania	63,280			3 A + 6 R + 5 Lt + 4 L	18
Russia		4,000,000		4 A + 13 R + 5 Lt	22
Spain	119,432		408	3 A + 3 R + 6 Lt	12
Sweden	37,200		240	68 days or 3 years A + 8 R + 4 I t + R I I	20
Switzerland .	20,122	526,105	288	1 A + 11 R + 12 Lt + 6 L	30
Turkey	375,009	1,150,700	1,356	$\frac{1}{4}$ A + $\frac{11}{4}$ R + $\frac{12}{4}$ L‡ + 6 L	20
United States	83,286	188,286	504	3 A	,3

A more graphic showing of the actual and the relative strength of ten great nations is found in the illustration which follows, (page 24) for which we are indebted to the courtesy of the Scientific American. It will be observed that the United States comes in at the foot of the class, which is headed by Russia, with its force of some four millions of men available for war.

In 1867 Japan had only 10,000 men in arms, and no regular army until shortly before the war with Russia. Its rapid transformation into a military power of the first rank seems to have escaped the attention of the Russian authorities, the reports brought by military attachés previous to the war being disregarded. Russia's estimate before the war of the Japanese army was 141,573 for the peace establishment and 358,800 men for war, or, with 50,000 untrained reserves, a little over 400,000. Japan actually put into the field, according to the estimate of General Kuropatkin, who commanded the Russian armies in Manchuria, a million and a half men. This estimate is based on the statement of General Kipke, chief medical inspector of the Japanese army, that the losses of that army in the war were 47,387 killed, 173,425 wounded, and 334,073 disabled by sickness. Of the sick and wounded 320,000 were sent from Manchuria to Japan. The total deaths from wounds and disease were 136,269. As General Kipke states that the 220,812 killed and wounded were 14.58 per cent. of the whole force, this would make the total Japanese force engaged in the war 1,514,485.

A comparison of national revenues and expenditures, national debts and interest charges on national debts, is shown in the following table taken from "The Statesman's Year Book" for 1908:

	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Debt.	Debt Charge.
Austria-Hungary	\$ 835,725,000	\$ 800,455,000	\$3,159,240,000	\$184,742,500
France			6,069,617,950	
Germany		596,817,500	885,875,000	
Great Britain	574,070,865	697,076,255	3,870,823,520	142,500,000
Italy	401,974,350	396,551,550	2,654,334,000	113,037,500
Japan			1,275,335,705	
Russia	1,789,749,500	1,713,438,500	4,591,774,500	202,189,300
United States	665,306,134	578,360,592	858,685,510	24,482,524



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The annual expenditures in the Imperial budget of Great Britain are as follows:

United Kingdom	£139,415,251
European colonies	576,360 6,575,330
Australia and Pacific	34,151,500 42,170,000
African colonies	2,500,080
England and Wales	17,651,753
Grand Total	£464,741,488

This is a grand total in American money of \$2,323,707,440 for the Imperial expenses and the expenditures of the various colonial components of the British Empire. The Military and Naval expenditures, including those of India, Canada, and other British colonies, are \$296,495,000, or twelve and eight tenths (12.8) per cent. of the whole expenditure for the British realm.

Calculating on the same basis, we find that the imperial expenses of Germany are \$687,514,000 annually. To this are to be added the expenditures of each of the fourteen states composing the German Empire, in all \$1,006,043,203. Adding this to imperial expenditures we have a grand total of \$1,603,-557,203. The expenditures for the Army and Navy are in all \$264,488,000, which is fifteen and six-tenths (15.6) per cent. of the cost of governing the entire Empire of Germany for the defence of which this Army and Navy are provided.

Coming to the United States, we have the following figures:

Federal expenses	\$578,903,748 292,000,000 572,000,111
Grand Total	97.128.076
Total Cost of Army and Navy	\$201,395,173

From this it appears that the total expenditures of this country for the Military and Naval establishments is a little less than fourteen per cent. of the total cost of government, and these figures include the municipal expenditures of only 154 out of the 923 incorporated places in the United States.

having 5,000 inhabitants or more, and exclude altogether a class of towns having from 5,000 to 14,000 inhabitants each, of which there are seventy-one in New England alone. We are not able to say what municipal expenses in Germany, if any, are not included in this calculation.

These are days of large figures, and the \$200,000,000 spent for our Army and Navy will seem a less formidable total when we remember that four railroads, the Pennsylvania, the Long Island, the New Haven, the New York Central, are expending \$170,000,000 in improving their approaches to the single city of New York and that the city itself is expecting to provide \$161,000,000 for a new water supply, \$175,000,000 for new subways and \$80,500,000 for new bridges and tunnels. Adding this to the railroad expenses and the \$100,000,000 voted for the enlargement of the Erie Canal to increase the commercial facilities of New York, we have in round figures, \$786,500,000 for improvements centering in a single city, or enough to provide for either the Navy or Army for eight years and for both over four years. The property owned by the city of New York is valued at three times the cost of our present Navy, and the amount expended by that city on public undertakings in 1907 would build and equip eleven battleships.

A British Admiralty return gives the naval expenditure of seven nations for the last three years, as follows, translating pounds sterling into dollars at the rate of five dollars to the

pound sterling.	1906-1907.	1907-1908	1908-1909.
Great Britain	\$157,360,435	\$157,097,500	\$161,597,500
France	65,016,190	62,433,965	63,986,540
Russia	62,452,220	44,251,200	49,169,575
Germany.	60,029,355	68,119,620	82,982,805
Italy	26,610,770	28,309,110	31,330,965
United States	102,167,670	98,913,648	122,662,485
Japan	19,761,555	42,241,110	40,474,420
Totals	\$493,398,195	\$501,366,153	\$452,204,290

The amounts voted for new construction and armament

are as follows:		•	
are as follows:	1906-1907.	1907-1908.	1908-1909 .
Great Britain	\$54,297,500	\$46,135,000	\$43,301,010
France	28,511,335	25,662,470	26,578,950
Russia	22,882,915	14,231,340	13.518.605
Germany	26,712,330	31, 426,125	41,832,190
Italy	6,811,035	6,990,555	9,831,790
United States	43,003,870	33,91 8,525	88,994,075
Japan	3,762,975	16,1 66,490	14,839,590
Totals	\$185,981,960	\$174,580,505	\$188,396,210

The classification of the great navies of the world according to strength is determined by factors as to the relative importance of which naval experts are not wholly agreed. Number of vessels, or guns, or guns and vessels together, is not necessarily the chief factor. Speed, armor and armament, coal endurance, are other elements that enter into the calculation. Each naval constructor seeks for the best possible compromise between the different elements to be considered in securing the highest possible efficiency. The displacement being determined, he must decide how this is to be distributed among the several factors. Taking a small cruiser for illustration, say one of 2,650 tons: 1,250 tons are required in the hull, 450 tons for machinery, 300 tons for coal, 175 tons for armament, 210 tons for the protective deck, 75 tons for the cables, anchors, boats, masts, etc., 100 tons being reserved for officers, men and their effects, with provisions, water and other stores, leaving a margin of 20 tons for security.

The rapid depreciation in relative military value of warships due to the many improvements constantly being made in material introduces a further complication into the comparison of navies. Some ships built even ten years ago have depreciated in military value one half, and others twenty years old seventy-five per cent. In general, the ships of the navies of the United States, Germany, and Japan, being largely of recent construction, have a greater average value than those of older navies. England recently, at one stroke, reduced her navy by 100 vessels sent to the auctioneer's block.

Taking all the factors into consideration, the general conclusion of experts is that navies rank in the following order: British, American, German, Japanese, French, Italian, Austro-Hungarian, Russian. Jane, in the volume of his "Fighting Ships" for 1908, publishes the accompanying table on which he bases his conclusion that the navies are to be ranked in the order named. It will be observed that, taking the Dreadnought as the unit of value, Mr. Jane assigns to each class a certain percentage of that unit, according to his estimate of the relative value of the ships of that class.

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ITALIAN.	3 NEW (11)		4 V. EMANUELE 2 BRIN 3 B. Georgio (70) 3 B. Georgio (10)		t st. bon	1 DANDOLO 3 Garinaldi
FRENCH.	4 DANTON (11) 2 DANTON (10)	4 Liberté 2 Republique	1 SUFFREM	S CHARLEMAGNE P B Owins (108-08) 1 Renan	B DOUVET E CARNOT I MEMBER I MEMBER 3 General I BERNAUS I HERRA IV.	4 Gloire 2 Montain 2 BOUVINES 2 JEINAPPES
JAPANESE.	3 NBW (11) 1 NBW (10) 1 AKI (70) 1 SATBUKA	S Cruisere (11)	I MIKABA 2 GHIKUBINA 1 IWAMI 1 HIZER 2 Ibeli 2 Teslesh	I FUJI I BUWO I SUWO	1 TANGO	E Kanga 1 Ass
GERMAN.	3 NEW (11) 2 NEW (10) 2 NASSAU (00) •		6 DECTSCHLAND 6 BRAUNSCHWEIG	2 Scharnborst	6 WITTELSBACE 6 KAISER 1 Bismark	4 BRANDENBURG
U.S.	2 DELAWARE (11) 2 DELAWARE (10) 2 .S. CAROLINA (10)	I KANKAR (10) 3 KANBAB 2 LOUISTANA 6 NEW JERSEY Y IDAHO	3 MAINE 2 Washington (V6) 2 Washington	3 ALABAMA	2 KEARSAROE 3 INDIANA 1 IOWA 6 Calieraia	4 ARKANSAS
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	8 Bernione	2 Columbia			4 Descrites 6 Friest			1 P. Asons
4 -		5 Chattanoogs		2 Tone 2 Nitake 2 Suma 2 Suma	1 Fuedre	e cape	3 Zenta 1 Admirel Spans	l Keraliof
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Dreadnought as Unit.

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Fleets of the Great Powers, in order of importance, arranged in Parallels of fighting Value with the Dreadnought as Unit.

The Scientific American publishes the following table showing the vessels of the principal navies on June 1, 1907:

A, battleships*; E, torpedo boats;	B, armored cruisers; F, submarines;	C, 6	cruis coas	erst; t def	ense	D. o	destro	yers;
England		B. 32		D. 142	E.	F. 39	G,	
France	19 ⁻	19	28	35	257 32		12	
Germany		18	38	60	48	1	18	
		11	19 15	54 93	77 57	7 25	3 4	
Italy		6	11	13	66 36	3	6	

*Battleships, first class, are those of (about) 10,000 tons or more displacement, †Includes all unarmored cruising vessels above 1,000 tons displacement, ‡Includes smaller battleships and monitors. No more vessels of this class are being proposed or built by the great powers.

The navy of the United States has, since our war with Spain, rapidly advanced to the second place, from an inferiority which would exclude it altogether from the above table showing the relative strength of the principal navies. It will be remembered that at the time of that war foreign experts, by elaborate calculations, showed that our navy was inferior to that of Spain, which is too insignificant to appear in Mr. Jane's table. In 1881 we had in our navy 47 screw propellers and 6 other steam vessels; 24 ironclads, including monitors; 2 torpedo boats and 25 tugs. Of this total of 139 only 57 were in efficient service. The number of guns was 1,033. We had altogether 0,538 officers and men in the Navy, besides 1,577 in the Marine Corps. In November, 1907, we had 294 vessels, not including 20 under construction and 12 unfit for service. The total number of officers and men was 35,377, besides 8,316 in the Marine Corps.

In 1880 the total tonnage of armored ships of European nations was estimated by Chief Engineer King, U. S. N., at 1,014,500 tons, of which Great Britain had 317,000 tons. Now, including battleships, 825,630 tons, armored cruisers, 443,490 tons, and protected cruisers, 453,850 tons, Great Britain has 1,722,880 tons of vessels bearing armor, the armor being from two to three times as effective as the compound and wrought iron armor of the earlier period.

But a comparison of numbers gives no idea of the immense increase in strength due to the improvement in ships, guns, and

powder, while to this is to be added the improvement in marksmanship, and in the case of our navy the great gain in skill in handling of ships and supplies resulting from the voyage of the Atlantic fleet around the world. The rapid increase in gun fire is shown by the comparison which follows and for which we are also indebted to the Scientific American. It shows the total energy of gun fire in five minutes of the United States battleship Oregon in 1897 and in the United States battleship Rhode Island ten years later, in 1907. This fivefold increase in energy is due largely to the greatly increased rapidity of fire, resulting from improved mechanism for handling and maneuvering the guns and to the greater attention now paid to the training of the gunners. The totals are calculated upon the number of carefully-aimed shots which each gun could deliver under battle conditions and not upon the extraordinary rapidity which has been obtained by crack gun crews in target practice. A comparison of the present British Dreadnought with the Dreadnought of thirty-six years ago shows that the destructive power of the modern ship is nearly one hundred times that of the old vessel.

	Oregon in 189	7.	Rho	de Island in 1	.907.
Gun•.	Mussle Energy FtTons.	Mussle Energy in Five Minutes' Firing, FtTons,	Guns.	Mussle Energy. FtTons.	Mussle Energy in Five Minutes' Firing, Ft -Tons,
4 13-inch 8 8-inch 4 6-inch 20 6-pdrs	33,627 8,011 2,990 138	269,016 320,440 119,600 110,400	4 12-inch 8 8-inch 12 6-inch 12 3-inch	44,025 13,647 5,714 658	726,412 1,091,760 1,714,200 394,800
Total energy five minute	all guns in	819,456	Total energy five minute	all guns in	3,927,172

The increase in muzzle velocity from 1,450 foot seconds in 1879 to 2,700 to 2,800 foot seconds has quadrupled the power of the army gun, for the energy increases as the square of the velocity. A striking illustration of the potential energy of modern ordnance is shown by the fact that the range of the 16-inch breech-loading rifle now at Sandy Hook is estimated

at between 20 and 21 miles, the gun being elevated at the extreme angle of 45 degrees and firing a 2,400-pound projectile. At this range the projectile would rise at the highest point of its trajectory over five and one half miles above the earth, 29,040 feet. This would carry it over Mount Blanc, with Pike's Peak piled on top of it, Mount Blanc being 15,732 feet high and Pike's Peak 14,000 feet. The actual test of this mathematical calculation by ordnance experts will not, however, be made. Mortars are fired at high elevations, but not heavy rifled guns. The 12-inch rifle, now in the Service, has a trajectory at the extreme elevation of 15,000 to 16,000 feet, which would carry it over Mount Blanc.

The cut shows the difference in size and power between the present 16-inch Army rifled gun and the two principal guns of the Civil War, the Rodman 20-inch smooth bore and the 200-pound Parrott. There is but one 16-inch gun in existence and it has only been tested experimentally at Sandy Hook whither it was taken from Watervliet Arsenal, Troy, N. Y., where it was built under the supervision of General J. P. Farley, U. S. A., one of the most distinguished of ordnance officers, to whose courtesy we are indebted for our estimate of the power of this monster piece of ordnance. The 20-inch Rodman reached the limit of ordnance creation during the Civil War as did the 200-pound Parrott.

The increase in the power of the heavy guns used on shipboard and in our coast defences, which has been noted above, is paralleled by that of the small arms borne on the field of battle by the infantry and cavalry soldier. The introduction of the breech-loading rifle has more than doubled the rapidity of fire of small arms and their accuracy at long ranges, and the improvement upon the breechloader by the small bore repeater is correspondingly great.

Yet, singular as it may seem, the immense increase in the power of modern weapons of war is accompanied by a marked decrease in the percentage of losses in battle. According to the calculations of Otto Berndt, in his "Zahlin Krieg," published at Vienna in 1897, the average loss in battle during

by sentence of law. Under modern conditions the individual soldier has, as a rule, no more consciousness of being responsible for the death of a particular individual by his own act than has the superintendent of a railroad on which an accident occurs. The distances separating combatants on what may be a battle front one hundred miles long, as in Manchuria, are so great that in a large majority of cases there is no individual struggle between man and man as in the days of the Roman short sword. This is shown by the fact that in the battles between the Russians and Japanese the bayonet wounds were about one half of one per cent. of the whole. There is nothing in war, at least in war as now conducted, to stimulate the evil passions; quite the contrary, for some of the noblest impulses of human nature find their stimulus on the battle-field.

The value of the army as a training school and an educational institution is found by the Germans to be so great that it makes a return to the state in actual commercial gain far in excess of its cost. It is an appreciation of this fact that has established the German military system in the regard of the educated classes who are favored to the extent of having service in the ranks of the active army reduced to one year for all young men having an education equivalent to that of a youth who has finished half of his freshman course in one of our colleges. The educated young Germans are also appointed non-commissioned officers when they go into the reserve. The premium thus placed on education naturally stimulates the effort to acquire it. In a recent public address President Hadley of Yale has testified to the value of German Army training as a means of education.

It is further found that the time which is subtracted from the early years of the life of a German youth by service with the colors is fully compensated for by a corresponding extension of his working period, due to the physical training he receives in the army and the knowledge he acquires as to the best means of preserving his health and hence increasing longevity and working capacity.

Sir Joseph Whitworth, the English inventor and manufacturer, whose large experience with workmen should make him a competent judge, has expressed the opinion that the habit of prompt obedience and thoroughness acquired by military training increases the value of the workman thirtysix cents (1s. 6d.) a week, a statement which will be substantially confirmed by anyone who will inquire in the manufactories of Germany, where ex-soldiers are found to be the most valuable workmen, they being the average citizen plus the habits of order and discipline and the manual dexterity acquired in the ranks. On the basis of Sir Joseph's figures, F. N. Maude, C. B., lecturer on military history in the Universities of London and Manchester, estimates that the skill of the army-trained workman adds \$56.16 annually to the market value of the product on which he works, the value of this being estimated at three times the cost of the labor expended upon the raw material.

Whether or not we accept these mathematical calculations as exact, it would be possible to show that enforced military training has been the controlling factor in the progress of Germany to imperial greatness, in commerce, manufactories and all the elements of industrial wealth, during the one hundred years since she lay prostrate at the feet of Napoleon I. It is military service that has created an Imperial Germany out of a medley of small States, just as it has created a united Italy by the same methods.

Military training by no means implies war, and a comparison of the experiences of the past century with those of the century preceding it would indicate that it is the most effective means of controlling the popular passions that lead to war. Of all men, those whose military training teaches them what war means are those most averse to war and those most competent to determine how it can best be avoided.

What has been said here offers no excuse for war, nor is it intended to justify war, but simply to explain the facts concerning war and to show the wisdom of following the guidance of those trained in the knowledge of the causes and consequences of war in the effort to prevent the deadly strife between nations which grows more and more colossal in its proportions, more and more terrible in its consequences. War would not cease if every great army were disbanded today, if every sword were beaten into a ploughshare, and every spear into a pruning hook. It will end only when the struggles of individual and national selfishness, provoking the conflicts which the soldier is called upon to settle, are at an end. The warlike fever in the Balkan states, among the most insignificant in a military sense of any in Europe, and the concert of action among the great Powers to prevent war, offer a present illustration of the fact that the existence of great military establishments is not a provocation to, but an insurance against war. Not only the immediate expenses of war, but the economic changes involved in the results of war, may well make the most powerful and the most belligerent of nations hesitate to break the peace. It is the minor states of Europe that have sought to embroil their more powerful neighbors in a fight; just as the insurgent Cubans provoked us into a war with Spain. It is the boast of a member of Congress who was the special champion of the Cubans that he was responsible for the Spanish war. Certainly the members of the army or navy of the United States had nothing to do with provoking it. On the contrary, they strove in every way they could to prevent it, as they sought to prevent our Civil War and deprecated the war with Mexico, as, did General Grant, as he tells us in his "Memoirs."



Part IV. The Island of Walcheren and Zeeland.—The Dead Cities—Rotterdam

By George Wharton Edwards

THE traveler is recommended above all to enter Holland by way of Flushing in Zeeland, as the Island of Walcheren retains more of the old costumes and the original types of peasantry than perhaps any other of the provinces. The picturesque costumes of the women with their queer headdresses and flashing gold and silver cap ornaments, show to great advantage and impress the tourist with the strange antiquity of the people. The milk-maid, going her round with utensils burnished like silver and gold and sparkling in the sunlight, the patient dogs drawing the little green carts, laden with brass milk cans, the curious carvings on the dark leaning house fronts; the funny, little mirrors (spui) at each window, showing to those within the passerby; the busy "huisvrouw," cleansing the footway before her dwelling or sweeping the immaculate bricks of the roadway; the sweet, soft, jangling chime of the bells in the "Grootekerk" with its lofty tower of four stages, dating from the fourteenth century; the gaudily painted brown sailed fishing craft, manned by the stolid, broad-beamed Dutchmen, are sights which will impress one most strangely. The town of Flushing or "Vlissingen" is about a mile from the harbor. This walk is most

^{*}Copyright, 1908, by George Wharton Edwards. This series which began in the September Chautauouan will continue throughout the reading year.





Walcheren Peasant Costume-Side and Front View.

entertaining. There is a huge dial showing the height of the water in the River Scheldt, a dial resembling a clock and with the letters on it "A. P." In Dutch this means "Amsterdamsche Peil," and shows high water mark at Amsterdam. Here is the town hall on the "Hout Kade" erected in 1733; formerly the mansion of a wealthy citizen, it was adapted to its present use after the English destroyed the other by bombardment. Now comes a curious house across a bridge of boats. It is adorned with the figures of the Graces. Then down a street lined with beautiful chestnut trees to the very heart of old Flushing. Here we find the peasant women, gathered in the "Oude Markt," all busily chaffering and wrangling over their various commodities. Across the canal to the "Beurs Plein," to the "Rotonde" on the sea front, with its lighthouse, and a raised walk upon which is a statue of Admiral De Ruyter, who was born here in 1607. His father was a rope maker but his mother descended from a noble family. It was from here that De Ruyter's fleet sailed out to attack the English fleet. The circular tower was built in 1663 and was once the chief gate of old Flushing. Digitized by Google

40 Reading Journey in the Hollow-Land





Walcheren Peasant Girls.

The Island of Walcheren is about ten miles in length and eight miles in breadth and has played a most important part in Dutch and English history and its story many years further back is full of interest.

"Among the quicksands of storm-beaten Walachria, that wondrous Normandy came into existence whose wings were to sweep over all the high places of Christendom. Out of these creeks, laugunes, and almost inaccessible sand banks, these bold free-booters sailed forth on their forays against England, France, and other adjacent countries, and here they brought and buried the booty of many a wild adventure. Here at a later day Rollo the Dane had that memorable dream of leprosy, the cure of which was the conversion of North Gaul into Normandy, of pagans into Christians, and the subsequent conquest of every throne in Christendom from Ultima Thule to Byzantium ('United Netherlands')."

As to its connection with English history, every school boy has heard of the Walcheren expedition in 1809, when the Earl of Chatham was sent with troops to destroy the naval arsenal which Napoleon was creating in Antwerp. The incompetent English general, instead of carrying out the object of the expedition, stopped enroute to take Flushing, in consequence of which Napoleon had sufficient time to put Antwerp in a state of defence, while 7,000 English soldiers, left in charge

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Walcheren Peasant Youth.

Walcheren Peasant Maid

of Walcheren, perished of marsh fever and £20,000,000 of money was sacrificed.

Flushing has made a magnificent endeavor to become a great port. And it is hard to understand why it has not succeeded. The map of Holland will show at a glance that its position is unequaled, and millions of guilders have been spent on its harbor works and docks. Steamers leave here regularly for Hull and different parts of the continent. The magnificent harbor is divided into three parts, known as the Outer port and the first and second Inner port. The Outer port comprises about thirty-two acres and has a depth of twenty-one feet at low water; a canal twenty-four feet deep connects the harbor with Middelburg and Veere, cutting the Island of Walcheren into two parts. The town is sheltered from the north and northeast winds and the ever changing sea. To the left is the coast of South Flanders, some of its villages being easily discernible. To the north are the downs with red-tiled farmhouses dotted here and there. To the northeast one gets a glimpse of Biggekerke and Koudekerke,



Boats on the River near Rotterdam.

two villages worth visiting by the way. There is a little steam tram running between Flushing and Middelburg, four miles away, but a pleasanter way of making the journey is to take the little steamer, running at frequent intervals through the canal, in company with the gaily-dressed peasantry to or from their way to market. In this way a better idea of the country people may be had.

Middelburg was in the middle ages one of the richest and most flourishing cities of the Netherlands as may be seen from its well-built houses, once the homes of merchant princes, and from its spacious docks and waterways. Its municipal charter, dated 1213, is one of the oldest documents of the kind in existence. It was a great market for wool, and was crowded with merchants from all parts of Europe, especially from England, Italy, Spain, and Portugal. Its intercourse with other nations led to a large trade in wine. All wines coming from Spain and France, for example, for consumption in Holland and Germany had to pass through Middelburg and pay a heavy duty there. In 1572 Middelburg was the last place in Zeeland occupied by the Spanish. It capitulated to the Zeelanders in 1574. It has been described as the most peculiarly representative and Dutch of all the towns of Holland. On Thursday, which is market day, there is great opportunity of studying the Zeeland peasants for it is upon this day that they flock in from the country after their labors



On the Scheldt, Flushing (Vlissingen).

of the week. Their dress is peculiar, most picturesque, and perhaps the most elaborate in Holland. Both sexes wear a great deal of quaint, beaten silver ornaments which may be purchased from them sometimes but for which they ask twice the value. There are many little silverware shops in Middelburg where may be found the quaint, old Dutch spoons, such as are described by Thackeray in "A Roundabout Paper." On market days these shops are thronged with peasants, purchasing the curious Zeeland silver buttons and buckles. These are made of silver wire in concentric circles which are soldered to a base, and are quite moderate in price. The eating at the hotels here is not very good from our standpoint. The traveler will find a superabundance of, as well as many kinds of, cheese. There is cheese with caraway seeds and cheese without, soft cheese, hard cheese, yellow cheese, red cheese, green cheese, and white cheese, not to speak of a certain dark brown cheese, the merits of which I am unable to qualify. The bread is generally good. Of the meat I cannot say as much. My Dutch friend tells me that mutton is hard to get and I found it so, and the reason he gives is that sheep are only killed when they cease to be valuable for wool-bearing and lamb on the table is an almost unheard of rarity. Veal is the great staple and is served in all manner of forms and is generally well cooked. The soup, which is good, is plentifully besprinkled, especially in the north, with cinnamon; it





Headdress, Goes-Side and Front Views.

is rather full of greasy "eyes" and contains forced meat balls or tiny sausages. To a hungry man who has spent the day sight-seeing this food is more or less palatable and is generally served with a huge flagon of beer. The dining-rooms away from the cities in the small towns are redolent of tobacco, for the Dutch are great smokers, from the boy of five in the street to the nonagenarian. Eggs are eaten cold for breakfast and are served in a huge bowl in the shell, with various kinds of cheeses sliced and crumbled, a pot of boiling water and a little caddy full of tea with which one is supposed to make his own tea. After a few essays at tea-making, the tourist becomes quite expert but my own experiences are fresh in my mind, and are too unsuccessful to dwell upon here.

In studying Zeeland, the traveler would better make his headquarters at Middelburg rather than Flushing, for I found the hotel distinctly better at the first-named town, and its situation is certainly fascinating—occupying as it does one side of the quiet square enclosed by the walls of the Abdij as the Dutch oddly spell it. There, amid a grove of trees,



A Dutch Dyke as it appears from the Sea.

one sees delicate spires and a charming façade—the headquarters of the Provincial council, who, meeting in a fifteenth century hall, have had the temerity and taste (or lack of it) to furnish it with "art nouveau" furniture. A proverb of the Middelburger reads "Goed rond, goed Zeuwsch," that is, "well rounded, very Zeelandish," and certainly many of the inhabitants bear it out, and the shape of the town as well, which curves about the "Abdij." Here one notices for the first time the peculiar costume of the women, who are comely, red cheeked, and quite delightful to behold in their lace-frilled caps and bright shawls. The peculiarity is in the color of their arms. The sleeves of their waists are cut off high above the elbow and so tightly worn that the bare arm from thence down seems bursting from the pressure above and, expanding, takes on the color of a ripe reddish plum mottled with delicate violet tints-most uncomfortable and unpleasant to look upon, too.

Middelburg presents a bright and happy exterior. There is everywhere the aspect and evidence of fresh paint, even the tree-trunks and plaster casts of statuary in the gardens are touched up with the paint and whitewash brush. The doors are immaculately white, likewise the marble steps, re-





Peasant Costume, Veere.

Peasant Type, Goes.

minding one of Philadelphia, and the shutters of the windows are ornamented often with a curious hour glass shaped painted ornament, which I am informed is the conventional form of curtains draped back behind the glass, and it may be so. It is certainly quaint. Green paint is lavishly used too, and the freedom is sometimes questionable, but in the main the effect is pleasing from its very novelty.

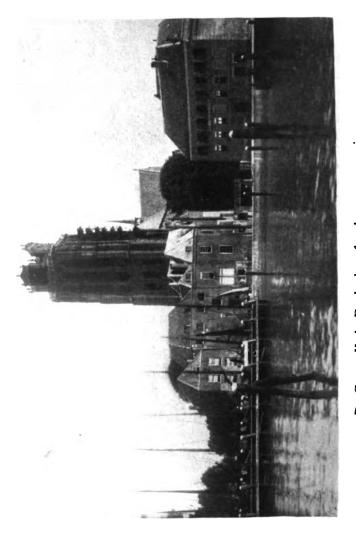
One is awakened in the morning by the profoundly plaintive music of the bells and carillon and of Long John (De lange Jan) in the tall tower of the Abbey at the "Niew Kerk." Day and night his voice is heard over Middelburg every seven and a half minutes, eight times in the hour. Think of it, forty-one bells every seven and a half minutes! Happy the man who can sleep under such a bombardment; as for me, I like it, for my student days were spent under the eaves in a small, red-tiled floored room in Antwerp in the very shadow of the cathedral, and I love the bells, the beautiful silvery deliberate persistent chime. Here at Middelburg is another celebrity (Gekke Betje) Foolish Betsey—so called from her



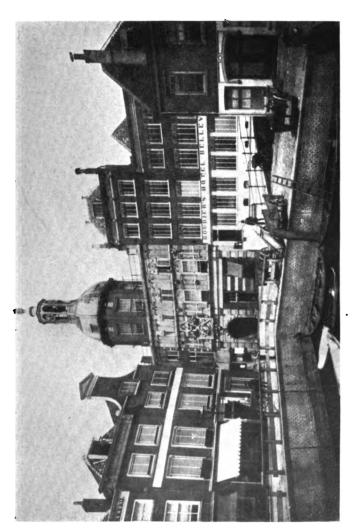
Canal at Flushing (Vlissingen).

steady wilfulness in disregarding her obligations to Long John. Betsey is the Great Clock in the Stad-Huis, and is the pride of the town even though she will not keep correct time.

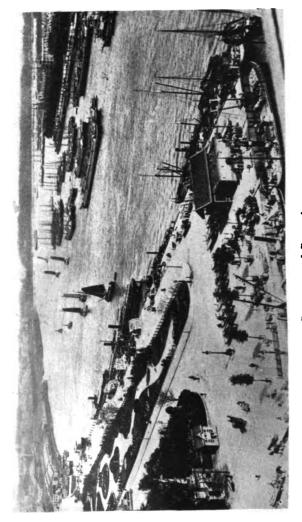
One very curious custom will strike the traveler, that is the railing (often of brass brightly polished) maintained by every house owner across the sidewalk in front of the house at each side of his property, making it impossible for the passerby to use it. My inquiries as to the meaning of this were answered by uplifted eyebrows, a stare, and a shrug of the shoulders, so I forebore. But the streets and houses are certainly an unending entertainment: there is something at every turn to charm one from its novelty and unusualness; a rosy cheeked maid with her skirts tucked between her knees scrubbing the already immaculate doorstep; a fat baby in a low-wheeled box, while a puppy contentedly licks its unconscious face; a dog-cart filled with golden brass and ruddy copper milk cans; a gathering of ancient lace-becapped women, placidly drinking tea in an arbor bearing the painted motto"Lust in Rust;" two hip-jacketed, wide-breeched peasant boys gazing



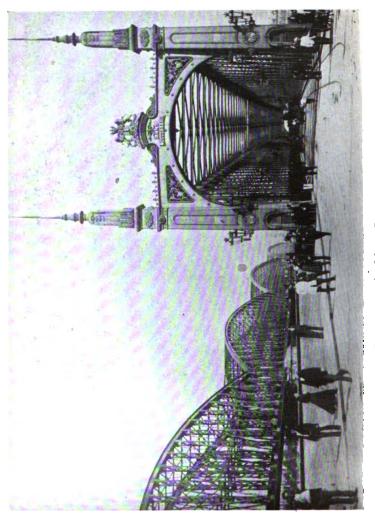
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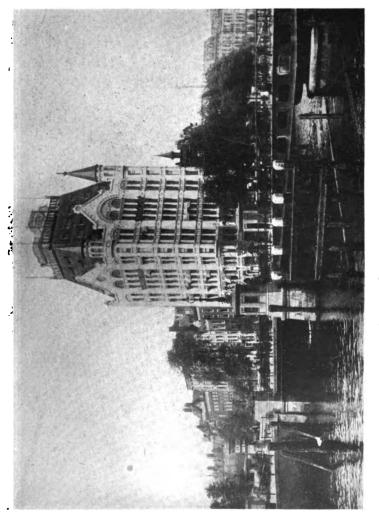
Ancient City Gate (De Groothoofd-Poort), Dordrecht.



View of the River Maas, Rotterdam.



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into each other's eyes in a sort of trance, and saying not one word while I watched them covertly, for fully three minutes by the watch; the glint of sunlight on the patches of moss on the side of a moored barge in the canal, and the long reflections of its sails and cordage in the sluggishly moving water. There is an interesting museum, "Zeeuwsch Genootschap der Wetenschappen." dedicated to the history of Zeeland, containing many shells and stuffed birds, Admiral Ruyter's wheel on which he made rope when a boy, the first telescope, made by Zacharias Jansen, the inventor, two of the first microscopes (1500), a room furnished in the Zeeland style of old, and other curious and interesting objects which may detain the visitor. The other towns of Walcheren, Westcapelle, Domburg, Arnemuiden, and Veere can be easily reached from Middelburg on foot, or conveyance as one prefers. Of these, the most curious and charming is Veere-silent, dead, once the chief rival of Middelburg, but now deserted and abandoned; one can see its huge tower for miles across the level landscape, its fellow lies beneath the sea, they say. It is vast in its proportions, all unfinished as it is. One end alone is used for services and the rest, whitewashed, nude, and stripped of all its one-time ornamentation, is very melancholy, never having recovered from its desecration by Napoleon who used it for a barracks and a stable

On the silent quay is the fine Scotch house, formerly the headquarters of the Scotch wool trade in Zeeland. The exquisite Stadhuis claims attention with its lovely onion-bulb spire piercing the sky and its visible bells softly ringing and jangling. Here, too, one notes the curious painting of the shutters of the lower story, with their hour-glass shaped decoration. Seven statues of the counts and countesses of Veere adorn its front above the first story. It was built in 1470-74.

The Vierschaar, or Court House, paneled in oak is now a museum; its chief treasure is a silver-gilt cup, presented by Prince Maximilian to Veere in 1651. Notice the bronze hands over the fireplace. A person sentenced to be "behanded" might by law commute the punishment by paying a certain sum, and presenting a bronze hand marked with the name,

crime, etc. There is a small hotel or two; the "Belvedere" may be mentioned as occupying the old Camp Veere tower, an ancient bulwark, with pleasant views across the water to North Beveland. Domburg away to the westward is a small bathing resort, reached by steam train via Kondekerke from Middelburg. At Domburg the men bathe to the right, women to the left. An ancient and picturesque man clad in red flannel armed with a fog-horn acts as master of ceremonies, and recalls the adventurous bather. He bears on his back the word "Badman," but this does not, I am sure, refer to his character, but to his vocation. The Bad Hotel, too, belies its name. It is, on the contrary, excellent in every way and there are other good hotels here, too.

The traveler may now return to Middelburg and Flushing and take train for Rotterdam by way of Dordrecht, passing through Arnemuiden. The train crosses an embankment over the Scheldt, the last glimpse of the gigantic church of Veere vanishes in the distance, and Goes on the island of South Beveland with its red roofs, orchards, and lofty church is seen. Now the train enters North Brabant, crossing an arm of the sea and arriving at Bergen-opzoom, a dull little town with a heavy towered church, passes on to Dordrecht.

Dort, as the Dutch lovingly call it, "that most picturesquely deeply dyed of the Dutch towns," stands on an island separated during the great flood from the mainland in 1421 and is the most ancient of Dutch towns, dating from the tenth century. There is a small hotel on the quay, "The Belvedere," where Whistler and I and Van Gravesande spent many happy evenings together some years ago, watching the shipping on the river and discussing art, life, and things-"eheu fugaces." Dort's leaning houses, we are told by the engineers, are the result of design, but whether or not, they are most alarmingly curious, for one may almost reach across certain of the streets from house to house at the upper windows, and clasp hands with one's neighbors. Certainly no other town occupies its place with calmer placidity, nor has any other so medieval an aspect as in that canal, far below the street level and crossed with a multitude of bridges.

Quainter than Amsterdam, it is the nearest in resemblance to Venice, and there are flights of steps to the water's edge, to the moored boats where the fisherwomen wrangle and wash clothes, and where walls green and mossy rise from the canals, and everywhere is bright green paint, growing flowers in window boxes, caged starlings and placid pussy cats sitting beneath them on the sills of the windows. Barges are constantly passing and the presence of the stranger is unnoticed, nor does his easel or white umbrella awaken more than passing interest. On Wijnstraat are some good examples of the quaint houses of the Hanseatic period with roofs rising in curious steps. The Picture Gallery is in the Linden Gracht, and there is a South African Museum adjoining it. The Groot Hoofd Poort is a picturesque gateway dating from 1618, of red brick enriched with escutcheons, lions, and heads. Inside is a sixteenth century Dutch room paneled in oak, and here are also some fine banners of the ancient guilds. The Groot Kirk is one of the most interesting churches in Holland. The choir and east end are discarded. And whisper! I saw once the washing hung up on a line to dry behind the screentrue. it was on a week-day, but nevertheless! The organ has three manuals and sixty-three stops. There is a fine white marble pulpit (1756). The screen was erected in 1744. The carved choir stalls, which were wilfully damaged at the Reformation, are considered the finest in Holland. They are by Aertz, a native of Oort. In the "Munt Poort" on Voor Straat are some fine Renaissance decorations. Dort was the birthplace of Albert Cuyp, Nicholas Maes, and Ferdinand Bol, the famous painters. There is a statue of Ary Scheffer, the artist, who was born here. His pictures, too, may be seen in the Wijnstraat at the Museum.

A good deal of business is carried on. Great rafts of timber which are made up on the Rhine in Germany are usually broken up here and disposed of—many of the wind-mills about the town are used to saw them up into boards.

Founded in the eleventh century, Dort was of considerable importance in the middle ages by reason of its customs. All products brought into Holland had to pay duty at Dort

until the envy of Rotterdam succeeded in obtaining a portion of the trade. The first Congress of the Netherlands Commonwealth was held here in 1572 and while proffering loyalty to the king, determined to uphold the policy of William of Orange. This was a momentous gathering in the history of this distressful country. The great religious Congress or Synod of Dort sat here for nearly two years (1618-19). The Synod cost a colossal sum in expenses, and was less inspired by Christian love than any meeting ever held in the name of religion.

Rotterdam is reached by rail or steamer, the latter means being the more interesting, in about an hour and a half. Of its 200,000 inhabitants, one quarter are Roman Catholics, and there are about 7,000 Jews to be reckoned with in trade. It is named from its situation on the Rotte, that is, the Dam on the Rotte. It may be described as a most novel and picturesque medley of water, trees, curious draw bridges and vessels. One may loiter for hours upon the Boompjes (so called because of its row of beautiful trees, boompies being the Dutch for trees, or little trees) which is the place "where merchants most do congregate." There is great animation and color everywhere—the streets are alive with people, so that one can realize the fact that Rotterdam has a population of 200,000. The multitudinous draw bridges are being constantly raised or lowered to let the brightly and picturesquely painted barges pass, and the delay is most cheerfully borne by the halted pedestrian. While it is not a particularly pleasant city to visit it is very cosmopolitan. Its chief claim to fame is that it was the birthplace of Erasmus, and his bronze statue may be seen in the Grotte Markt surrounded by fruit stands and jostling, scolding, chattering peasant women. Another illustrious son is that exquisite painter, Pieter de Hooch. He excelled in his management of light. Sunlight diffused is one of his mysterious gifts to art; his pictures are bathed in it. The traveler may stop here in Rotterdam for a few hours at any rate, and visit "Boymans' Museum," where he will find some good pictures, and at the "Museum voor Geschiedenes en Kunst," a fine collection of old furniture,

glass, Delft ware, and weapons. The church of St. Lawrence has no equal in the country; its sombre gray tower quite dominates. There is a typical windmill on the "Cool Singel," some storks in the Zoo, and a most picturesque and busy river.

Lucas says "All Dutch towns are amphibious," but some are more watery than others. He says, too, that they do not swim in their waters and this I can vouch for, but they certainly do wash everything else in sight; such a splashing and a dousing as goes on from morning till night can be seen nowhere else in the world. Lady Mary Wortley Montague sent an interesting letter to the Countess de Mar in 1716 from here. She says: "All the streets are paved with broad stones, and before the meanest doors are seats of various colored marbles, so neatly kept that I assure you I walked all over town yesterday 'incognita' in my slippers without receiving one spot of dirt." There have been some changes since Lady Mary's day, but in the main her account reads as if written today.

And now we must pay a short visit to Gouda (pronounced Hooda) sometimes called Ter Gouw, where we find a fine church surmounted by a bulbous tower sufficiently picturesque to satisfy one. And some magnificently stained glass windows of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. There are twenty-nine large and thirteen small windows presented by various princes, corporations, etc. The best of them are the twelve by the brothers Wouter and Dirk Crabath in 1555-57, and of their pupils. Before each window is thoughtfully placed a cartoon of its subject. Perhaps such an assemblage of antique glass can be seen nowhere else. One can examine window after window in wonder at its beauty and quality, and marvel that the town was not long since despoiled of its treasures. From here to the Hague is but seventeen miles also by rail. We will, however, defer our visit to this town, the favorite residence of the Royal family, until another article.



IV. The Painters of Domestic Scenes.

By George Breed Zug.

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UXURY followed peace in Holland. The women wore beautiful clothes and furnished their homes with elegant furniture and rich stuffs. The men, relieved from the cares and hardships of war, found leisure to adorn their persons and to loiter indoors in the company of maidens robed in satin, velvet, and ermine. Elegance and ease marked the home life of well-to-do people, and this easy and elegant life found its perfect expression in the work of the Painters of Domestic Scenes, who may also be called The Painters of Society. These excellent craftsmen chose for their subjects such incidents of everyday life as a cook at her work, a milkmaid in the buttery, a mother caring for her child, a maiden at her toilet, reading a letter or a book, or taking a music lesson, an officer visiting a young lady, well-dressed people playing cards over a glass of wine or breakfasting at the door of an inn. This class of pictures also includes interiors with figures, few or many, street scenes, tavern broils, and peasant gatherings. Taken in their entire range of subject these pictures present the manners and customs not only of those

^{*}The first article of the series upon "Dutch Art and Artists" appeared in the September Chautauquan, the subject "Frans Hals and the Portrait;" in October, "Rembrandt;" in November, "Rembrandt and his Pupils."

placed high in the social scale, but also of people in the humbler walks of life, and they accordingly form a complete gallery of furnishings and of costume, a complete chronicle of the social life of the Dutch people of the seventeenth century. The present paper treats of the painters of the well-to-do classes, the society artists. The painters of the peasants, the low-life artists, are the subject of the next paper of this series.

As a broad term for the class of paintings just referred to we have taken over from the French the word "genre." The word thus used has a more restricted sense than its literal meaning (kind or sort) would imply, for English usage has decreed that the expression "genre painting" shall connote a picture of small dimensions, only a foot or two high, which represents some such domestic or intimately human scene as has just been suggested. It is with reference to the small dimensions of their pictures that the Dutch painters of genre are often given the title of "The Little Dutchmen." As to the genre subject it has usually nothing of historic import, nothing of the heroic or the sublime. But these Little Dutchmen were not seeking dramatic expression or epic grandeur as did Rubens and some of the Italians. The old Italians strove for beauty; the Dutch genre painters strove for the expression of character. The former painted the body; the latter strove to express the workings of the mind. Still, these genre painters do not search the soul as does Rembrandt, but are content to interpret the trifling, the trivial, and, at times even the vulgar incidents of life.

These painters love the play of light on walls and furniture, they love the rich depth of oriental rugs and of fur, the sheen of satin and of velvet, and the lustre of metal and of pottery, and their delicate art translated properly and harmoniously whatever objects and whatever human figures they selected into something new and original and beautiful, and the result was a work of art.

One of the best of the Dutch painters of the upper class was Gerard Ter Borch, the younger. His father, of the same name, was a man of wealth and education, who in his youth had traveled in Germany, Italy, and France. He devoted his

leisure to painting as a mere gentlemanly accomplishment and passed on his talent to his son. Gerard, the son, was born in Zwolle in 1617. He was a precocious boy and has left sketches drawn at the ages of eight and nine, on one of which the father proudly inscribed the words, "Made in 1625 on the 25th of September by G. T. Borch, the younger"; and on another, "Drawn by Gerard, after nature, on the 24th of April, 1626." A small sketch book that still exists, shows how carefully the boy copied nature. He evidently drew with most pleasure the simple subjects,—the thatched cottages, the farmyards with peaceful horses and cows, the old walls of the town with their towers and gates. But, profitable as were these studies, they did not afford sufficient training for so unusual a talent, and the father accordingly sent the young Gerard to Haarlem to study with the painter Pieter Molyn, an artist who objected to the prevailing imitation of the Italians which had been the pride and the curse of Dutch painters for almost a century. Molyn, who was a great influence in his school, confirmed our young master's love of things Dutch. When Gerard was only eighteen years of age he went to England. That the father was still helping to direct the boy's life is shown by a letter he sent to his son in London on July 3d, 1635. "My dear child," the father writes, "I send you the mannikin but without the block which should serve as its pedestal, for that is too large and heavy to put in the trunk. You can have one made, however, at slight cost. Do not let the mannikin have too much repose, as you did here, but use it continually. Draw constantly, and especially choose large compositions with much action in them. When you paint treat modern subjects as much as possible. Have regard to purity and freshness of coloring, that your colors may harmonize when they are dried. Above all serve God, be honest, humble, and useful to all and your affairs will turn out well."

How long Ter Borch remained in London we cannot tell, but Houbraken, the Vasari of Dutch art, says that the young painter visited also Italy, France, and Spain, while the date on a portrait shows that he was again in his native country in 1646 and working in Amsterdam.



"The Guitar Lesson." By Ter Borch. In the National Gallery, London.



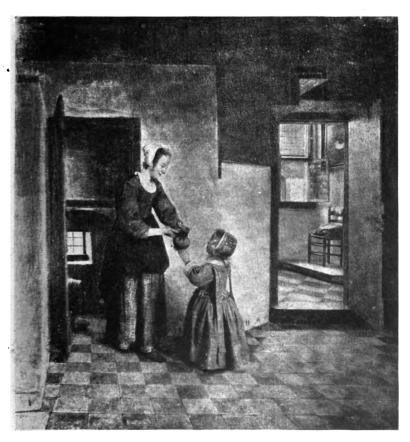
"The Visit." By Ter Borch. In the Berlin, Gallery.



"An Officer and a Young Lady." By Metsu. In the Louvre, Paris.



"An Old Toper." By Metsu. In the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam.



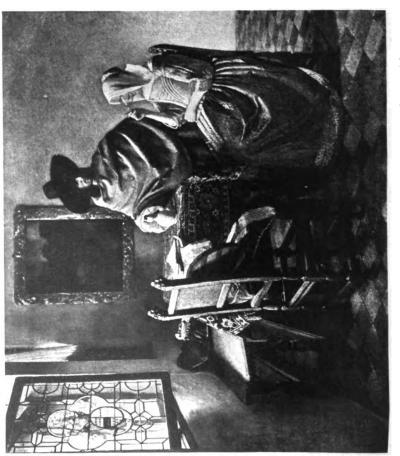
"The Buttery." By Pieter de Hooch. In the Rijks' Museum, Amsterdam.



"The Country House." By Pieter de Hooch. In the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam.



"Young Woman Opening a Casement." By Vermeer of Delft. In the Metropolitan Museum of Fine Arts, New York.



"Man and Woman Drinking." By Vermeer of Delft. In the Berlin Museum. Courtesy of the Berlin Photographic Co., New York.

It was probably his growing reputation which soon led him to settle in Münster, where he seems to have lived three years. At that time this city must have been a fruitful field for a portrait painter since it was the meeting place of many notables: delegates, ambassadors, churchmen, and jurists came hither from all of Europe to take part in the complicated proceedings to which the approaching conclusion of peace gave rise. Ter Borch has left a number of portraits of important personages painted in Münster, and about 1648 he painted there the so-called "Peace of Münster," one of the most important of his works. This is a portrait group only eighteen inches in height yet containing the carefully delineated and delicately painted portraits of no less than sixty persons. Against a carved wainscoting the Spanish Ambassadors and the delegates of the United Provinces are represented standing about a table upon which lies the provisional treaty. the picture was on exhibition in Paris in 1868 it is said that the celebrated French painter, Meissonier, traveled all the way from Antibes for the express purpose of seeing Ter Borch's masterpiece, and that after standing before it for an hour he declared that he considered each separate head in the picture worth the trouble and time that his long journey had cost him "*

In Münster Ter Borch came into relations with the Spanish Ambassador, who persuaded the painter to make a second visit to Spain in 1648. There he was received with great favor by the king, who heaped upon him honors and gifts, and there, it is said, his prowess with the hearts of the ladies of Madrid created such ill feeling that he was forced to leave the country precipitately. After his return to Holland he lived with his family in his native town of Zwolle until 1654, when he married a young woman of Deventer and settled in that city where he was busily occupied in his profession until his death in 1681.

As a man of culture and of much travel Ter Borch must have become acquainted with the work of the best painters of

^{*}The picture is now in the National Gallery, London. A reproduction is in Bates and Guild's "Masters in Art Series" on "Terburg."

Europe. It is believed that the masters that especially appealed to him were Frans Hals, Rembrandt, and Velasquez. However, it is difficult to point out any definite influence of these artists, for he was a master mind, an independent spirit. He was, therefore, able to learn from various masters while still preserving his own individuality and developing his own peculiar artistic style. As has been suggested, Ter Borch excelled in the painting of portrait groups and of single portraits, nearly always of very small size. Like Rembrandt he was fond of painting likenesses of himself and of the members of his family. But the works which one thinks of as typical of the master are the little genre pictures in the style of the two here reproduced.

In "The Guitar Lesson" a lady in yellow and white satin sits playing a lute, her master, leaning his elbow upon the table covered with a Turkish rug, is reading the music which he holds in his left hand, while he beats time with the right. A gentleman standing behind them is looking down at the music book. These two seventeenth century gallants, according to the Dutch custom of the time, keep their heads covered in the presence of the charming pupil. This is a typical subject for this whole group of painters. A music lesson of some kind offers one of the favorite themes for these little pictures. Sometimes the instrument is a spinet, sometimes a violin, and often, as here, a lute. Typical of Ter Borch's art in particular are several things which may be mentioned. Whereas De Hooch and Vermeer often represent a tiled floor and a raftered ceiling, here the ceiling and floor are plain; whereas in Vermeer and De Hooch the light of day enters through windows at the side or the back of the room and plays evenly over all the objects, with Ter Borch the light apparently shines into the picture from some invisible source and brightly illumines the figures in the foreground leaving the rest of the picture in semi-darkness. This focusing the light on the chief figures of the picture is an interesting convention used both by Ter Borch and Metsu. Peculiar to Ter Borch is the brown and white spotted spaniel introduced in "The Guitar Lesson," the Turkish rug, the candle-stick and the bed which

reminds one of a sentinel box. Typical also of this master's art is the introduction of but few accessory objects,—the candle-stick, the cloth on the table, the letter on the floor. This illustrates the master's skill and taste in selection in that he leaves out every unnecessary thing and puts in only such objects as will heighten the desired effect of unity. The composition should also be noticed. The standing figure occupies the center of the picture, the dark of the door at the left balances the bed at the right, the woman on the left is opposed to the master and the table on the right, and the dog on one side corresponds as a spot of light to the letter on the other. Again, could the drawing be more delicate and expressive? See how the fingers of the musician's left hand seem to extend towards us; notice the bend of the lady's right wrist; the placing of the fingers of the other hand on the strings; see how her jacket stands out at the back, and how true to nature the folds of her skirt fall to the floor.

Thus in lighting, in arrangement, and in drawing this little picture is a masterpiece. But no less masterly and no less typical are the coloring and the execution,—characteristics that can be fully appreciated only in the presence of the original painting. It is fortunate that one may see and enjoy paintings by Ter Borch in the Metropolitan Museum in New York, at the Art Institute in Chicago, and in several private . collections in America. In these pictures one can appreciate the master's quiet harmonies in red and brown, dominated, as in "The Guitar Lesson," by his favorite model in her white satin gown. This satin dress with its brilliantly painted sheen forms here, as in so many of Ter Borch's pictures, the dominant note of light, and a contrast to the deep reds and browns. Again and again the master introduces into his pictures the same model, with her tip-tilted nose, her brown hair, her fresh complexion and her satin dress adorned with its border of gold. Sometimes she is receiving an officer; sometimes offering him refreshments, or she is represented at her toilet, or writing a letter. Why does Ter Borch repeatedly introduce this model? The question might as well be asked why did Michael Angelo and Raphael each invent a type of face

and figure and employ it repeatedly in their pictures? Or why do Botticelli's women always show the same wan, oval face, the same swollen nostrils and over-ripe lips, the same melancholy expression? Surely the answer is very simple; each artist learns to see things in his own way, attains his own personal vision of the world, and comes to excel in representing certain types and certain colors, and because of his success goes on repeating them.

All these Little Dutchmen were skilful in rendering the surface appearance of things; the texture of hair, of flesh, of silk, satin, and carpet. But of all the group Ter Borch is uniformly most successful in this respect, and he triumphs over all others in the painting of satin. For who has so succeeded in reproducing its color, its folds, its sheen? Metsu alone approaches him, but only now and then. Gerard Dou's satin is too hard and shiny, Netscher's is too much like metal. In view, then, of his supreme skill it is no wonder that Ter Borch loves to paint again and again the satin gown of his favorite model.

Such a gown is seen also in "The Visit." Here again the focus of light is upon the figures; again there is the exclusion of all unnecessary objects; again there is the interpretation of a quiet moment in the lives of people. A gentleman and a lady have come to pay a visit to the dame in white satin, and while his wife gently sips the wine of hospitality the husband talks earnestly to his hostess, emphasizing his remarks with a gesture. Another characteristic feature of Ter Borch is here seen in turning the back of one of the figures to the spectator, thereby enhancing the effect of naturalness, of unstudied art. In this picture the dominating color note is red, but in spite of the vermillion of bed and table and chairs, and in spite of the high sheen of the white satin, the effect is of a quiet harmony which is very tranquillizing.

Gabriel Metsu was born in Leyden in 1630, thirteen years later than Ter Borch. He was for a short time a pupil of Gerard Dou, and he seems to have known Jan Steen intimately and to have been influenced by Steen's art in his own nictures of the peasantry and of the market. In 1650 he

removed to Amsterdam where he came under the influence of Rembrandt and where he died at the age of thirty-seven. These are about all the facts of his life we can be sure of, for the rest we must look to his work, for, although he died at so early an age, his artistic output was such that over one hundred and eighty of his pictures are still in existence, whereas from Ter Borch, with his greater span of life, only eighty pictures are left. Ter Borch was not only the first to devote his brush to the life of the upper classes, but he held it exclusively to that class of subjects. Metsu, whose work at its best is as noble and as refined in spirit and in workmanship as Ter Borch's, was more versatile. He painted outdoor as well as indoor scenes, portraits, and, with less success, religious subjects. He depicted not only the wealth and luxury of high life, but also, under the influence of Steen, markets and tavern scenes and the merrymakings of the peasantry. With these, however, he was not so successful as with the more elegant subjects. Consequently his work is uneven. well sustained high quality the palm goes to Ter Borch, but if variety and adaptability count for much Metsu is the greatest of the group. He is, moreover, the most human of the group. If he follows the incomparable Rembrandt at a distance, he still follows him more closely than any of his fellow artists in versatility, and in human and spiritual insight. Some of the host of genre painters who flourished at this time seem to introduce human figures as so much bric-a-brac of interest for color, texture, and play of light. Metsu seems to have been interested in the man within the clothes, and to have interpreted by facial expression, by pose, and gesture the very soul of the sitter. Yet, notwithstanding this greater range and this spiritual insight, Metsu's typical works, such as "An Officer and a Young Lady" remind one of Ter Borch's refined domestic scenes. And this picture seems to stand as evidence that Metsu was a follower of Ter Borch. Here is the same focusing of light on the chief figures, the same air of elegance and refinement, together with a similar skill in the painting of textures. Metsu is sometimes more elaborate, less simple than Ter Borch, but, at his best, as here,

he is as restrained and as refined, while he is often more skilful in the rendering of the effect of atmosphere by gradations of shadow and of tone. Careful as is Ter Borch in balance of arrangement, Metsu seems to lay even greater stress upon it. In "An Officer and a Young Lady" the man is set over against the young lady; the servant boy, with bashful tilt of head as he scrutinizes the officer, balances the table and the vase on the other side; and the little dog, with ears pricked up and nose thrust forward sniffing at the intruder, offsets the cane and gloves. By the incline of the heads and the pose of the bodies the artist subtly suggests the bashfulness of the boy, the gentleness and refinement of the lady, the aristocratic deference of the officer. By such little touches Metsu shows interest in people as people.

Such human sympathy is also apparent in "An Old Toper." This is not a mere portrait, but rather a portrait-study, a portrait with something of the genre element added. The old man as he leans slightly on the barrel, resting his pewter mug on his knee and looking out at the spectator with a blissful expression, is a delightful character study. No less delightful is the quiet color harmony made by the dull red cap trimmed with fur, the warm grey coat and the pewter mug set against the pearl grey background. Unobtrusive as are these two paintings of Metsu they are masterpieces of their kind, perfect examples of great art within small compass.

Without doubt Ter Borch and Metsu are the consummate realists of the Dutch genre painters, the masterworkmen of their group. They are the painters whom we most admire, while De Hooch and Vermeer of Delft are the painters whom we most love. These last are the artists of temperament, the most personal among their contemporaries. They are personal in their vision of nature, in their use of color, in their rendering of mood. Their supreme interest lies in the study of light, the varying and delicate effect of the sun's rays as they fall through casement window and open doors, or steal through heavy curtains, with power to light up a human face, touch a satin garment with gold, or glorify wall and floor of a modest Dutch interior. The two artists do not, as does

Rembrandt, employ chiaroscuro as a means for dramatic expression, as an aid to the interpretation of the spiritual nature, but rather as something worthy of treatment for its own sake, and in their study of light for artistic purposes these painters seem very modern.

The little that is known of Pieter De Hooch is that he was born in Utrecht in 1630, that he was actively engaged in 1653 at The Hague, and that in 1655 his name was inscribed on the membership roll of the Guild of St. Luke at Delft, while later there are traces of him at Amsterdam. Indeed, the great authority on Dutch painting, Bredius, includes De Hooch among the painters who worked mainly at Amsterdam. Such are the meagre facts of the painter's life as known to us. As regards his artistic development, we know that he was influenced by the work of Rembrandt without ever becoming his mere imitator, for he achieved a personal style of great originality. The comparatively early pictures of De Hooch convey a sense of peace, a feeling for the home such as few works in the history of painting can inspire. Witness "The Buttery" in the Rijks Museum. What could be more tranquil, more intimate than this simple interior with the woman and child? How true and how delightful is the action of the servant as she presents the jug for the child to sip! How charming is the gesture of the child, the tilt of her little head! Characteristic of De Hooch's subjects and of his delicate art are the tiled floors and the walls touched with light; and characteristic, too, is the vista of rooms seen through the open door, the windows admitting the sunlight from the glowing court.

"The Country House," on the other hand, is an example of a typical out of doors scene by our artist. Original as is De Hooch in his study of light in interiors, he is equally original in the color tone of his open-air subjects. In "The Country House" the young woman in the foreground is clad in rose color, yellow, and red, her guest with his brownish vest and bright red shoes makes another color note, while the servant scouring tins in the background is brilliant in blue and yellow. The sun shines brightly on the house with its red-tiled roof relieved against an intensely blue sky. It is in

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such pictures as these that De Hooch tells the story of the sane and cheerful life of the middle class with directness and simplicity and yet with a lyric quality all his own. Later in his career when he seems to have become more popular he tells the story of the wealthier classes, yet still with his own individual use of color and light.

Jan Vermeer, of Delft, whose name is frequently written Van der Meer, was born in Delft in 1632. He was probably a pupil of Rembrandt's follower, Karel Fabritius, and was later somewhat influenced by Rembrandt himself. It is known that he filled honored positions in his native city where he was accepted as a leader by his fellow artists. This statement of our artist's high position is confirmed by the testimony of a French traveler and art lover of his day, who records that when in 1661 he visited Delft and met Vermeer the latter's vogue was so great that the painter had no pictures in his studio to show him and in order to see one of the master's works the Frenchman had to go to the house of a baker who possessed a single picture of Vermeer, for which he had paid no less a sum than six hundred livres, equivalent to about \$150,—a large amount for those days. Yet, strange to say, in spite of Vermeer's contemporary fame his very name was forgotten fifty years after his death, and during the two centuries following he was entirely neglected, so that his pictures which were to be seen in many of the European collections usually bore the name of De Hooch. Thanks, however, to the painstaking researches of certain French critics it is now possible to enjoy the works by the great painter of Delft and to note the qualities which differentiate them from the works of the other artist.

The "Young Woman Opening a Casement" is eminently typical of Vermeer. He loves a restricted glimpse of an interior, often with a single figure outlined against a grey wall whose space is broken by the rectangular lines of a map. Whereas with De Hooch the light usually comes from more than one source, entering through windows and doors in the background, with Vermeer it nearly always comes through a leaded casement at the left, as in the two paintings here reproduced, and falls equally on dark blue chair, Persian rug, and

soft grey wall. Whereas De Hooch's colors are strong brick reds, a velvety black, naples yellow, and the intense blue of the sky, Vermeer is addicted to a delicate lemon yellow and a cool sky blue. It is this beautiful pale blue such as permeates "The Young Woman Opening a Casement" which one associates with the art of Vermeer and which helps to give the impression of a luminous atmosphere. Vermeer seems to care less for the story than does De Hooch, while his drawing is at once more accurate and more delicate, just as his color is more dainty and refined. Words are hardly necessary to point out how tenderly the light caresses the objects in the pictures of Vermeer, or with what unconscious beauty he invests each trifling act in the quiet dramas of his art. He seems to have a sense of beauty beyond that of his contemporaries and a peculiar sensitiveness to delicate cool colors.

Of the host of painters of domestic scenes in this prolific period of Dutch art the men to whom we have paid but too brief a tribute,—Ter Borch, Metsu, De Hooch and Vermeer, are the greatest. Rembrandt's pupil, Gerard Dou, and Ter Borch's follower, Caspar Netscher, introduce so many details into their pictures that the result is confused. Moreover, their workmanship is too smooth and metallic in appearance. Other painters of the time underline the story to satiety, while still others show the forced gracefulness, the superficial charm that come from an unfortunate Italian influence. But many, even of these minor masters, occasionally produce most worthy works. This whole large group of Dutch painters are the true historians of their period, telling in language plainer than words of the peace that followed the long war, of order, contentment, and of domestic happiness.

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For passages on Genre Painting in general see "Studies in Pictures," by John C. Van Dyke. Pages 99-110. And Painting in France, by P. G. Hamerton. Pages 57-66. Search and Review Questions, on required Reading will be found in the Round Table Section of this Magazine.

End of C. L. S. C. required Reading, pages 19-79.

The Sainte-Chapelle: A Medieval Shrine

By Edwina Spencer.

ENTERING the royal oratory of the Sainte-Chapelle from the outer world of Paris, one steps across the threshold of nearly eight centuries into "the glamour of an ancient day"-the day of Saint Louis of France and his crusading comrades. For when, through the fallen fortunes of the Byzantine Emperor, King Louis, of godly memory, acquired for France what to the medieval church were priceless treasures—the Crown of Thorns and a fragment of the True Cross,—he charged his architect, Pierre de Montereau, to build for them "a shrine of stone, as elaborately wrought as a piece of gold filigree, tapestried with enamels, illumined with brilliant glass." And "never," comments a modern writer, "was royal wish better understood or better executed." In 1245 the king laid the corner-stone; and within the incredibly short space of three years the architect had completed his marvelous work—then, as now, the most beautiful royal oratory in the world.*

It stands in the heart of Paris, where the "Ile de la Cité" teems with ancient memories; a little structure enshrined in that "vast complexus of buildings," the Palais de Justice. In ancient times, when Paris was but a muddy village, this site was occupied by the Roman governors; and later arose here the palace of the kings of France, of which only a few portions besides the Sainte-Chapelle exist, since the disastrous fires of 1776. Preserved as by a miracle through the rough usage of the Revolution and the Commune, the chapel of Louis IX emerged more or less mutilated, but with the glorious windows largely intact; and no other such example remains to us of a typical thirteenth century interior. Its restoration, decided upon in 1837, was admirably accomplished during

^{*}This claim is sometimes made for the Palatine Chapel in Palermo, Sicily, which is lined with exceedingly rich and beautiful medieval mosaics. The Sainte-Chapelle, however, unites unusual architectural beauty with fine mural decoration and priceless medieval glass, achieving an effect unsurpassed among royal oratories.

the succeeding twenty years by architects of profound knowledge and devotion to their task.

Its name, "Sainte-Chapelle," is the generic one which was used in the Middle Ages for churches built to contain important relics, or erected upon ground consecrated by martyrdom. Though several such chapels, of much beauty, still survive, that of Paris has long out-shone them all, and is known simply as "The" Sainte-Chapelle. Today we see it practically as its creator delivered it to his sovereign; a precious piece of Gothic art, so delicately and perfectly proportioned, so carven without and so gemmed within, that no jewel-casket or reliquary was ever more exquisite.

The fine exterior makes an instant appeal by its buoyant simplicity, elegance of line, and rich, yet restrained decoration. The photograph reproduced here shows it surrounded by confusion incident to repairs which were being made in the adjoining law courts of the Palace of Justice; but we may gain from it some idea of the exterior decoration; the elaborately carved railings, the turrets surrounded by sculptured crowns of thorns, the decorative angel's figure upon the apex of the roof, and the remarkably graceful spire. But the distinctive architectural feature of the building is its construction in two stories corresponding to those of the palace adjoining; thus giving the royal family direct access from its galleries to the upper chapel devoted to their use, and separating it from the lower one which was designed for various officers and attendants of the royal household. Each story is fronted by a quaintly sculptured porch.

Standing before the building we can watch the French lawyers, distinguished-looking in their robes, pass back and forth across the little court, and can glance over at the steps trodden by Dreyfus during his trial. But as we turn to the wonderful little shrine of St. Louis, these present surroundings fade, and the eyes of our mind suddenly open on the heart of Paris centuries ago. We see the King, who was also saint and warrior, moving statelily through the streets of his little city—(the capital which had been walled and paved by his grandfather, and only then transformed from the condition

which gave it its Roman name of "Mud-Town"); founding here hospitals, hospices, asylums and refuges for the blind, providing public aid for his people, as well as carrying on large works of private charity. And we remember how the scathing pens of the French philosophers of the eighteenth century dealt leniently with his taste for relics in view of these many benevolences! We recall how the wee boy of seven, left fatherless by the death of Louis VIII, was trained by his widowed mother to meet worthily the great responsibilities of kingship, and how, as a lad of eleven, he took his place upon the throne of France. We watch him going out to battle and returning victorious, and later, in his militant Christianity, entering upon the Crusades. In these old palace precincts how vividly he appears before us, riding in and out, talking with his good friend Robert Sorbon, the founder of the famous French University, or laughing with Sire de Joinville, that sprightly and delightful writer of the early French tongue!

Yet here, at the threshold of the oratory where he worshipped, we think of St. Louis most frequently as accompanied by the majestic figure of his mother, that noble Blanche of Castille, whose name is like an echo of her son's, so closely were their lives at one. A Spanish princess, daughter of Alfonso IX, King of Castille, when she married Louis VIII she became one of the great queens of France; and it was her spiritual teaching that built up her son's remarkable character. During his minority she ruled the kingdom—not as regent, but as the king's guardian; his name alone appeared in governmental matters, but it was her courage, energy and good sense, combined with amazing tact and intuition, that preserved France through those troublous years.

As Louis grew to manhood and came to justify all her hopes, she was rewarded by her intense pride and joy in him; his splendor of soul matched her own. Theirs was a solemn leave-taking, when in 1249 he set out for the Holy Land, for Blanche felt a premonition that she should never see him again, or have the comfort of greeting him on his triumphal return. Several years passed, during which the king met many disasters





Blanche of Castile, Queen of France, Wife of Louis VIII, and Mother of Saint Louis. Born 1187-died 1252. Her coat-of-arms was emblazoned beside his own throughout the Sainte-Chapelle, built by her son, Louis IX.

Saint Louis (1215–1270), King of France as Louis IX (1226–1270). Builder of the Sainte-Chapelle.

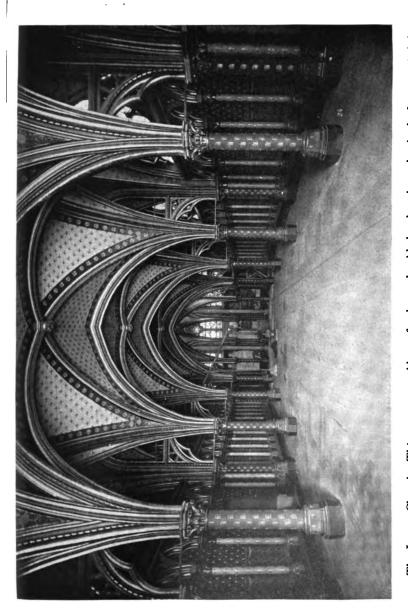
and long imprisonment; and his mother's death, three years after his departure while he was still in the East, made the final home-coming a sorrowful one for the devoted son.

Since its restoration, the Sainte-Chapelle has become an "historic monument," and is open to the public from eleven in the morning until four or five in the afternoon. About two o'clock is, however, the best hour; and it is important to choose the very brightest day that Paris skies afford one, because of the unfortunate darkening of both the lower and upper chapels by surrounding buildings. The disastrous fire which in 1776 damaged adjoining parts of the Palace of Justice, was followed by inexcusably blundering repairs; the architects deliberately shutting off most of the light from the lower, and also in a lesser degree from the upper chapel.

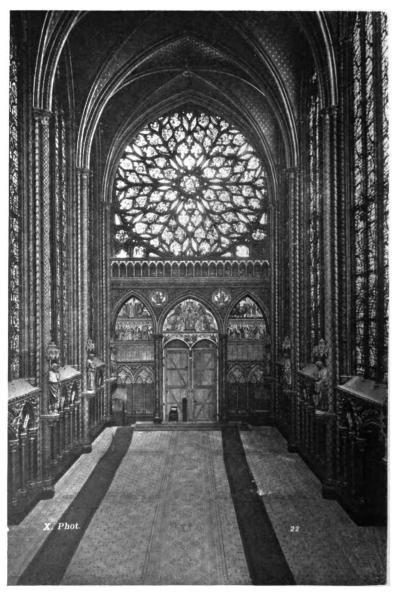
Present-day pilgrims enter by way of the lower chapel, where worshipped the many minor officials of the king's household; and not through the door from the adjoining corridors of the palace, which gave the royal family direct access to the upper floor. Crossing the lower porch, we find ourselves in what seems almost like a crypt, owing to the poor light; but as our eyes become accustomed, we discover how gorgeous an interior this is, clothed from floor to ceiling in color and gold. Forty columns, their tops wreathed with carved foliage, support the rather low vaulting, which is starred with the lilies of France. The shafts of the columns are decorated with the heraldic device (three castles) of Blanche of Castille,—Louis having combined his mother's insignia with his own throughout the building. Despite its rich reds and blues, there is no hint of gaudiness in the simple vivid coloring; it is like a Gregorian chant.

This forms, however, but a prelude to the more varied harmonies of the royal chapel above. One mounts a tiny spiral stair in the wall, and then the soul sensitive to color finds itself in the land of faery, mystical with the pageantry of storied windows, hung with azure, rose and gold, overshot with amber lights and ruby fires. The room is a long parallelogram rounded at its eastern end.* Our eyes may sweep from the great "rose" over the entrance, around an unbroken series of fifteen immense windows, which enclose the whole chapel in walls of painted glass. By skilfully throwing the great weight of the roof upon the outside buttresses, the medieval architect was able to reduce his walls to the thickness of mere pillars, and to achieve by means of immense windows, the effect of a room composed of transparent enamels through which the sun might play with marvelous beauty. The majestic curves of the vaulting bend down to meet the five great columns attached to the wall between the windows, each column springing from the floor in a single superb sweep of more than fifty feet.

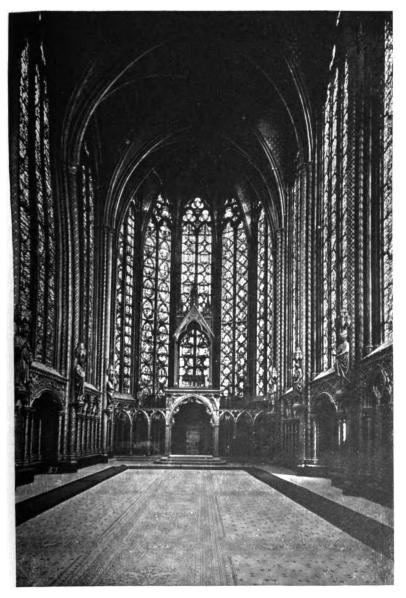
^{*}The upper chapel is one hundred and fifteen feet long, by thirty-six wide. Its height is sixty-six feet; that of the windows forty-nine.



The Lower Chapel. This was once a blaze of color and gold, but has been deprived of proper lighting by adjacent buildings.



The Upper Chapel. Entrance end, showing the great Rose-window, placed here in the XV Century, containing designs illustrating the Book of Revelations.



The Upper Chapel. Chancel end, showing the canopy, beneath which rested the shrine containing the sacred relics. The embrasures in the wall at either side were for the special use of the king and queen during services.

The chancel end is spanned by a row of seven arches, the wide central one supporting a platform upon which stands a large canopy of carved wood. Beneath this the relics rested and were displayed on solemn festivals. From its elevation, this magnificent shrine, blazing with precious stones, dominated the whole chapel and shone almost unearthly in the prismatic radiance from the windows. The shrine was approached by two tiny wooden stairways at the back, and one of these remains from St. Louis's day; many times his feet have mounted it in order that he might himself display the relics to the worshippers. The picture this thought calls up gives rise to another recollection of the king, when before the chapel was built he brought these religious treasures to Paris; it is easy to imagine the brilliant processions in 1230 and 1241, when the king piously walked barefoot through the streets of the city carrying the newly received relics on his shoulders, assisted by his brother, the Comte d'Artois.

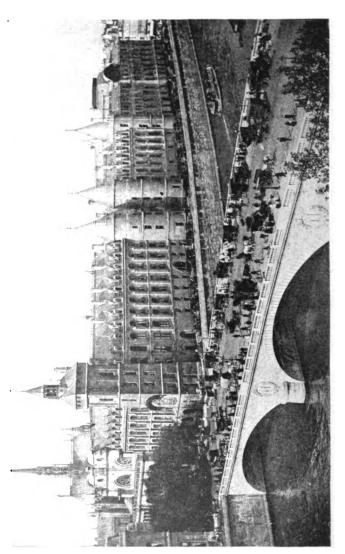
Three-fourths of the chapel's height is brilliant with windows; below them, the remaining fourth is enriched by elaborate arches, a multitude of lovely curves connecting the many slender pillars. The floor is of delicately tinted mosaic, upon which strips of carpet are now laid to protect it from the feet of sightseers. The vaulting is deep blue sown with golden stars; the high columns which support it alternate in color, one bearing the gold "fleur-de-Louis" of the king upon a diamonded blue ground, and the next a red diamond pattern with the gold castle of his mother's device. Indeed, the lily and castle are everywhere in evidence, combined in the decoration of parts of the vaulting, blazing in the ground-work of the windows, and embellishing the two shallow spaces in the side walls which formed recesses for the seclusion of the royal personages.

Not a foot of the interior is without some exquisite colored decoration; and to the whole jewel-enwoven fabric a last touch of beauty is added by twelve fine statues of the Apostles fastened to the window columns.

The whole mural decoration is, however, subordinated to the windows, serving them as a frame; and the windows are



Exterior of the Sainte-Chapelle. Notice the effect of lightness and daintiness combined with extreme solidity which makes it an architectural masterpiece.



The Palais de Justice, Paris, showing the Sainte-Chapelle at the left of the picture. The bridge is the famous Pont au Change, rebuilt in 1859 on the site of one of the oldest bridges in Paris. The clock-tower at the corner of the building dates from 1298, the clock being probably the oldest public clock in France.

priceless examples of French glass at the zenith of its perfection. They were all in place when the building was consecrated in 1248, except the rose-window, which dates from the fifteenth century, and is not so fine as the others. They are "medallion" windows, each depicting a series of sacred events in a corresponding number of variously shaped medallions, upon a conventional ground-work. Their subjects cover the whole of Sacred Writ, beginning with the Book of Genesis and continuing through Exodus, Numbers, Deuteronomy, Judges, the lives of the Kings and of the Prophets. From that point the New Testament is given with equal detail; the lives of Christ, of the Virgin Mary and of Saint John the Evangelist,—as well as the Heavenly Jerusalem, to which the rose-window is devoted. Sixty-seven of the subjects have to do with the acquisition of the relics; with their journey, their reception and their display before the people. These are perhaps most precious, as they give us portraits by contemporary artists of the Comte d'Artois, Blanche of Castille, and St. Louis himself.

This host of animated scenes is full of interest—a whole world of little figures in action, living, moving, and almost talking to us across the lapse of time. It forms a tremendous conception of religious story; and it has been well said that after taking us back to the origin of things and the creation of the world, these wonderful medallions conduct us down the ages, and, closing with the Book of Revelations, usher us even into the bosom of eternity!

We may go out from the chapel of St. Louis into other historic portions of the Palace of Justice and follow the French nation from century to century. We may look down the sombre passages leading to the Cour de Mai, through which passed more than twenty-seven hundred victims of the Revolution; and in the Conciergerie, which occupies the lower part of the building, adjoining the river, we may visit the cell in which Marie Antoinette was imprisoned. On the upper floor is the chamber where the Revolutionary tribunal met and passed her death sentence; and near her cell below is that of Robespierre. Outside is the bridge occupying the site of the

old Pont au Change which was flanked with the shops of gold-smiths and money-changers; it leads across the Seine to that modern portion of the city, on the right bank of the river, which harbors the present business and fashion of Paris,—the finest boulevards, hotels, theaters, and shops. But the old town on the left bank which cherishes Notre Dame and the Sainte-Chapelle is still full of ancient traditions. Here is the Sorbonne, in the Latin quarter, and here also is the Quartier St. Germain containing the residences of the old aristocracy.

Yet, after dwelling upon the historic memories in other parts of the Palace of Justice, we find ourselves drawn back again to the beauties of the Sainte-Chapelle, and we suddenly realize that here the years have left us more than memories. Art in its most wonderful creative mood has triumphed over time; and did we know nothing of St. Louis or his period, the infinite loveliness of this little chapel would give us almost an equal delight. Through the artists, whom he inspired to such achievement, Louis unconsciously mirrored his own "splendor of soul"; symbolizing the force and beauty of his Christian faith, as well as the richness of his spiritual nature.

The glorious reds and blues of the ancient glass fill the silent room with colored light, and their glow seems to repeople it with the brilliant scenes of medieval monarchy. The ladies who knelt beneath these jeweled windows, and who were radiant as the flowers in a French parterre, the knights shining in bright armor, gay with embroidered devices, the pages, squires and crusaders, who formed a rainbow-hued concourse at joust or worship, ceased long ago their devotions in the Sainte-Chapelle! Yet it still invites us with incomparable charm to do homage at the shrine of immortal art.

The Summer Christmas

By Maarten Maartens.

7

[The following story reprinted by permission of the author and his publishers, Appleton & Co., is one of the best of a volume of short stories entitled "My Poor Relations." These tales of Dutch peasant life display much of the excellent method of the French masters of the short story, and have, as well, a kindliness and sympathy too often lacking in the work of the French writers. Mr. Maartens (J. M. W. Van der Poorten-Schwartz) is the greatest of living Dutch authors, but by reason of his ability to write in English has a wider circle of readers in England and America, than in Holland itself.]

IT IS an old story, forgotten long ago, I think, in that quiet corner of the world which saw it happen. A touching story it has always seemed to me, and strangely quaint; but that, perhaps, may only be because to me its memory remains indissolubly blended with recollections of the place in which I used to hear it told me, because the soft voice of the teller must ever be to me the music of the tale. For me alone is this: why should I seek, then, to intrude it upon others? To them it will be a passing incident, printed, paid for (a tenth part of a sixpence), sliced between two others, yawned over for five minutes and forgot. Now to me it is the changeless Nowel, the young anthem of the angels around the cradle of the Saviour of the world. And again I hear my mother speaking, in the wainscot chamber with the painted panels, in the half light of the fire-logs, and her face, hear her telling, with a voice like distant church bells, all the story, how it happened, with but little alteration, many winter evenings, almost word for word. The voice is stilled. The winter evenings were ·long and cold and dark. They are longer now.

I said the story is an old one. That must be true. For one thing, there are no Counts Edelstam in Holland now; the family has died out, and the simple customs among which they lived are also dead or dying. All this I know. Yet to me

the story is so fresh and new it might occur tomorrow. The oldest thing in a man's life (and they say it is the last) is the memory of his mother—daughters may forget: however that be, thank God! to this eternal soul—a-flutter round the flame betwixt two shadows—come some few thoughts that remain untinged by time.

It was on a winter evening that Magda von Malitz arrived at Stamsel—a bitter winter evening, cold and dark as this. The old Count had been expecting her since still carriage, sent to meet her at the post-house, should nave brought her back three hours ago. He sat in the wainscot chamber, where the painted panels are, wondering if some accident could possibly have befallen the horses. The suggestion troubled him. He rang for Peter.

"Peter, do you think that anything can have happened to—the young Baroness?"

"I do not think so, Mynheer the Count."

"And why not, pray?" asked the old gentleman testily.

"Oh! if you wish it, of course, Mynheer the Count."

Count Edelstam took snuff. He used to be a long time about taking snuff.

"Traveling is not so dangerous—" began the old servant, who never spoke unless spoken to, except when he thought he had gone too far.

"What?" His master stopped, amazed, with uplifted pinch.

"As it used to be, I was going to say."

"That is true. Now, when I went to Paris"—the old gentleman snuffed, shook his head and waited—"yet that was before the Revolution!" He presented his mull to the servant, a thing he never did by daylight.

"Your Nobleness could not go now," said Peter.

"Peter, you presume. Mind your own business," replied the Count with vivacity. For that subject was a sore one, as will readily appear.

"Still I wish she had arrived," said the Count.

"So she has," said the servant.

"What on earth do you mean?" said the Count.

"I hear the carriage in the courtyard," said the servant.

"Then why the devil can't you speak?" said the Count.

"I did not wish to presume," said the servant.

"You are the curse of my life," exclaimed the Count, running out into the hall.

"And its blessing," said, preparing to follow, the servant.

Magda von Malitz was being ushered up the marble steps from the great doorway. She was very young, with a lot of fair hair, and big blue eyes. She must have looked charming aveling-hood.

her uncle, in the cloud of white hair (was it powdered?) and splendid lace ruff. He took her by the hand with a few words of greeting, and led her into the parlour.

"You are like your mother," he said, lifting the lamp shade to gaze at her. "Why did she go all the way to Austria? It is too far."

"The foot goes where the heart leads it, my uncle," said Magda, and dropped another curtsey.

"Tut, tut. Well, she died there; it is seven years ago."

"Eight years, my uncle," said Magda.

"Tut, tut. You mustn't contradict me. Nobody contradicts me here."

Magda dropped another deep curtsey. There must lie little satisfaction, she reflected, in pretending to be right. But she only said—

"And where is my Uncle Robert, Uncle Charles?"

"Your Uncle Robert is away," replied Uncle Charles. And he coughed a great deal, and cleared his throat, and choked.

"Away?"

"And why not, pray?" said the old gentleman sharply.

"My mother has told me you always lived together, that was all," she answered, with eyes full of innocent surprise; "six months here at Stamsel, six months at Bardwyk, four miles off."

"It is four and a half," said Count Edelstam.

"And she had never known you two days apart. I have often heard her say that. When, please, is he coming back?"

"You ask too many questions, my niece," replied the Count. "You are a stranger here. You could ask questions forever. My housekeeper will show you to your apartment. After that, pray come down and have some supper."

"Forgive me," she said, "I hardly feel myself a stranger. I used to hear about you and Uncle Robert every day while

mother was alive."

He solemnly kissed her on the forehead.

"You will be happy here, I trust," he said. "We will do everything to make you happy. It is a quiet place, but so is Bardwyk; and neither of them is quieter than your convent at Plauensee."

"I am happy to be rid of school. I am happy to be here," said Magda, departing under care of Vrouw Slomp.

The old Count turned abruptly to his servant. "Now that is very strange, is it not?" he said, "that she should begin by asking after Robert."

"Not so very strange, if your Nobleness comes to consider. Evidently the young lady knows more of what happened before than of what has occurred in the last six years."

"Well, go and live with my brother Robert," replied

Count Karel inconsequently.

"As your Nobleness pleases. Shall I send you my brother Paul?"

The one old man looked in the other's imperturbable face. Then they both had snuff; and while they were enjoying it, Magda came back. Her hair was all about her brow in curls and ringlets; her dark frock, high-waisted, after the fashion of the period, suited the trimness of her graceful figure. She was all dimples and sweetness and smiles.

"Now to prove that I am no stranger," she said gaily, "I will tell you about that snuff-box, Uncle Karel, which you have got in your hand. It has a stag chased on top of it, silver-gilt, with two rubies for eyes."

"Dear, dear, it is time you came home," he said, laughing. "Yet, my dear, you were never in the Netherlands before."

"Still they are home," she answered gravely. "I never knew my Austrian father; my mother has been dead so long. Brabant has always seemed my fatherland; mother wished me to think so. She never tired of telling me about her life before her marriage. Uncle Karel, I was so sorry you could not have me a month earlier, before Christmas. I should have liked, above all things, to be present at the 'Peace-making.' I had been looking forward to it. Of course, my Uncle Robert was here for that?"

"My dear, I must go and wash my hands for supper," said Uncle Karel, and he hastily beat a retreat. From one of the panel-chamber's many gloomy corners old Peter came forward into the shaded light.

"Young Freule," he said, "you will excuse me, but the name of your Uncle Robert is never mentioned in this house."

"Why, Peter," cried the girl, "whatever do you mean? And where is Paul?"

"Paul, an it please your Nobleness, has gone with Count Robert to Bardwyk; they live there always now. Six years ago our masters quarreled; they have never met or spoken since."

"Ouarreled?"

"It came on about a journey—quite unexpectedly, as one may say. They had always been the best of friends, though very different characters. My master is quick and kind-hearted. Count Robert is slow—but la! he's kind-hearted too."

"I know," said the girl impatiently; "but the quarrel! What quarrel?"

Old Peter peered out of his little grey eyes. "Your Nobleness knows a deal," he said. "They'd been planning their journey for months, but they always squabbled over it. Count Robert, he wanted to go to Paris; he'd never been out of the country at all. Count Karel had been, as a young man, with me, thirty-nine years ago come next June, and he wouldn't go again, for the one place he'd been to was to Paris. La! what a time we had in Paris! It was just before the outbreak of the great Revolution; 'tis a wonder I'm here to tell the tale!"

That was Peter's stereotyped expression at this stage of his story. You were now expected to request further details.

"They quarreled!" said the Freule, speaking as in a

dream.

Peter knit his bushy eyebrows. "After what we had gone through, I cannot be surprised at my master's decision," he said.

"But there was no revolution six years ago in Paris! Revolutions are done."

"There might have been," said Peter emphatically; "any time. The people that did what the French did in '89—do you know what they did to the Dauphin?"

"Yes," said the girl softly.

"Dear, dear, they shouldn't teach young ladies such things. And to thousands of innocent women! No wonder Count Karel will never go to Paris again. No, he wanted to visit London! Count Robert refused to hear of London, because the English have taken the Cape of Good Hope."

"That, also, I can understand," remarked Magda.

"They had frequently quarreled about the matter, amicably, as we fancied, but one evening, suddenly, they grew violent. They were rude to each other." Old Peter's voice dropped to a whisper. "Words fell between them—in fact, in the presence of us servants, they called each other names. I should not tell you, but that it is necessary you should understand. It is not the quarrel, it is that which one cannot forgive the other. Each refused to apologize; both were in fault. Count Robert left for Bardwyk that night with my brother. There has been no communication between the two houses since."

"But the Peace-making!" cried Magda, the tears in her eyes. "Surely they must meet at the Peace-making!"

"Hush! I hear my master's step! Neither has been present at the Peace-making, Freule, since the Christmas before the quarrel."

At this juncture Count Karel entered, and, offering his hand, led Magda to the supper table. The soft light of the candles fell from massive candlesticks; there were glittering

glass and snowy napery and simple fare. They are almost in silence, with formal question and answer about the journey. It was only when the oranges and walnuts were put on the table that Count Karel said what he wanted to say.

"It has been arranged," he began, looking down on the crackers he was carefully adjusting, "that you will spend six months of the year with me and six at Bardwyk. I shall ask you to leave for Bardwyk on the 31st of June. Meanwhile, please let us avoid the subject."

She laid her head upon the tablecloth and sobbed.

"Don't," said Count Karel; his voice trembled.

"I—I can't help it. Please forgive me. It is so different from the home-coming I had expected."

"You cannot miss anything. You had never seen either of us, Magda!"

"I—I know. But I have loved you both ever since I can remember. Mother taught me to. And she said your love for each other was the blessing of the neighborhood. It had taught you to institute the Peace-making—"

"Silence!" said Count Karel in a voice of thunder. Its tones rang through the lonely house. Old Peter crept up anxiously and peeped through the door.

That was the end of Magda's first evening at Stamsel. Many days and evenings followed—cold, quiet, comfortable, uniformly dull. At least they got dull when she realized their uniformity. A silence hung over the house—a beautiful old house, full of art treasures, many of the present lord's collecting. Everything was in absolute order under Peter's most absolute rule. The housekeeper was a nonentity. Magda was a guest. In the clockwork machinery of the house no hitches occurred except such as the master occasionally provoked. Count Karel's temper was quick. He believed in, although he detested, scolding. He even scolded Peter. Peter ruled him with a rod of iron.

"The house is silent," said Magda ruefully. She obtained, by not asking for it, permission to drive over to Bardwyk from time to time. The latter was a smaller edifice, a tiny castle, still more valuably furnished, not with art curios, but

with beautiful sixteenth-century furniture in its original place. Nothing much lay between the two properties but a stretch of bleak Brabant country, dotted over with stunted trees. Connected with each place was a ragged village; here and there a stray house lay lost. Half-way stood the church, in almost desolate loneliness, with the dwelling house of the priest.

And so Magda got to know her Uncle Robert. He very much resembled his elder brother, but in a quieter way; there was not the eagle flash of the eye; there was a stronger, squarer chin. Count Robert was a bookworm, perfectly content among county histories, local and provincial and family chronicles, oddities and quiddities, notes and queries, intellectual parings and fringes, and rubbish of every sort. He liked his niece to sit by him, working tapestry. "But I miss my billiards," he exclaimed one day, suddenly, looking up from van Leeuwen's Batavia Illustrata. She did not ask him to explain the "but," or the aggressive denial in his tone. "Do you play billiards, Magda?"

"No, Uncle Robert; they did not teach us in the convent,"

replied Magda demurely, bending over her work.

"My dear, they were very right. When you come here you must learn to play at billiards, and also at backgammon."

"Uncle Karel and I play backgammon of evenings,"

said Magda. "He plays beautifully."

"H'm—but not with proper caution. Backgammon, of all games, requires caution."

"Does it?"

"I shall prove to you that it does when we play together. My dear, it wants a long time till the 31st of June."

"This is the 17th of April," was Magda's only answer. His pride prevented his asking her whether she looked forward to the transmigration, yet he would have given a good deal to know.

"It is time forme to go home," said Magda. That final word invariably annoyed him. But he quietly rang the bell and asked for the Freule's carriage.

Old Paul stood in the doorway, a stouter replica of Peter, with a redder nose and whiter hair.

"An't please your Nobleness," said Paul, "Thys cannot drive the Freule back tonight." Thys was the Stamsel coachman.

"It does not please my nobleness at all," replied Count Robert. "Pray what is the matter with Thys?"

"Thys has been suddenly taken ill," said Paul, with a grin and a side glance towards the Freule.

"Drunk, of course," said the Count with quiet triumph.

"An't please your Nobleness, no," said Paul, with still greater satisfaction.

"Then what is the matter, out with it!"

"I hardly like to tell before the Freule," said Paul, with beaming face and fidgety feet. "I am not at all sure that the Freule will approve. But, to speak the truth Mynheer the Count, there's been a fight between Thys of Stamsel and one of our Bardwyk men, and Thys has been beaten all to pieces."

"Which of our men?" asked old Count Robert, buried in Batavia Illustrata.

"Red-headed Joris, the stable-boy."

"The rogue ought to be ashamed of himself." Count Robert's head suddenly emerged from the book. "You will not give him a gold piece Paul; do you hear? I will not have it."

Magda had risen. "No one need ask what the quarrel was about," she said sadly.

"My dear, it is only natural that servants should stick up for their masters."

"And the masters?" She looked him full in the face. His eyes fell. "I can drive myself home tonight," she said. "But I very much fear this will prevent my ever coming again."

Her uncle followed her. "You can have a boy from here," he said. "Magda, listen. You are right. Țell your uncle that I much regret this incident, and that Thys (whom I have always liked, but that is neither here nor there) shall have every care and comfort. Nothing more, child—do you hear? and nothing less. Good-night!"

She drove back with an exultant Bardwyk boy behind her. Her heart, by nature light, was very heavy. At the

pastorage-house, half-way, she paused, and going in, sat down by the old priest's side.

"You love them as much as I," she said.

"Boy and man," replied the old priest meekly, "I have known them fifty years."

"How long ago is it, reverend father, that they instituted the 'Peace-making'? Tell me all about it; you have never told me before."

"Child, I think I have told you everything. It was twenty years ago, when your mother, who was so much younger than they, married and went to live in Austria. Your mother, as you know, did not marry early; she had long kept house for them. When she was gone, they said—and I think they were right—there seemed to be many more fights and squabbles among the people. We Brabanders are always a quarrelsome race, at Kermesses and feasts and funerals, and we love a low contention or a long-drawn family feud. Your mother-God rest her gentle presence—had somehow been a Messenger of Peace. She would go into the cottages and bid the men-and the women!-shake hands. Then, when she was gone; and the fights and contentions grew continuous, your uncle and myself-yes, my dear, I had a share in it (he smiled)-we started the Christmas Peace-making. Once a year, at the Holy Feast of Peace and Goodwill, after the Midnight Mass of the Nativity, we hold a little special service, full of 'Blessed are the Peace-makers,' and we sing the Angels' Song. It is very short and simple. The Bishop gladly gave permission. And then, ere it is over, they who will, shake hands before the altar; some I call by name; with many I have spoken previously: with some I reason, even on the altar-steps. Ah, my dear, it used to be a beautiful service"—the old man sighed heavily— "shedding an especial glory over our Christmastide."

"But it still takes place!"

Father Cordes sighed again. "It still takes place. What will you have? The Manorial pew stands empty on that day. On all other occasions Count Robert goes to a strange church, across the moor! The whole countryside knows of the quarrel. The influence of your uncles is gone. On more than one.

occasion in former years Count Karel, rising in his seat, has commanded some resolute wrong-doer to make atonement. And now? Let quarrel who quarrel will. Their masters hate each other. Faithful Thys of Stamsel lies at Bardwyk with a broken head." Tears came into the old priest's voice.

"I have done what I could," he said presently; "I have reasoned, I have pleaded. God alone can touch hearts. I am growing very feeble. Freule, my earthly pilgrimage is nearly over. I often feel that I could die in peace if I could see my masters reconciled."

"You will see them reconciled," said Magda suddenly.

"God grant it." She rose.

"Ask Him. Ask Him often," she said.

"I have asked Him every day."

"Then how can it not happen? But ask that it may happen now, dear father, before another Christmas comes."

"It must, if I am to see it—on earth," said the father

thoughtfully.

She left him without another word, for she could not have spoken it.

Count Karel was fortunately inclined to take a favorable view of the affray. His natural sweetness came to his assistance, for he was one of those people who are permanently sorry when they have taken offence. So he waited till the assurance that his coachman's injuries were anything but dangerous (and honestly earned), and then he even went so far as to smile. "Give the boy from Bardwyk a pot of beer," he said to Peter, "and see that he has some food before he goes back." He turned in the doorway. "What boy is it?" he added.

"One of Kotter's, the gamekeeper's, Mynheer the Count."

"Well, that's a good litter. I'm glad Count Robert has taken him on. But, my dear Magda, I should say you had better give up going across for the present."

"In all things, dear uncle, I shall do as you think fit."

It took Robert three weeks to write and ask if his niece might pay him another visit. He would not apply direct to her, that being contrary to his ideas of etiquette; so at last he

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sent a note: "Count Robert presents his compliments to Count Karel," his logical mind forbidding him to use the phrase "Dear Brother." When she came, "I have missed you very much," he said, and sat and read his folio for the rest of the afternoon.

Driving along the untidy road, between the scraggy poplars, she came across the doctor; and she stopped to inquire after Father Cordes, who seemed more feeble than ever of late.

"What will you have," said the doctor coolly. "The man is nearly eighty. He will live through the summer, I should say; but in any case, the autumn damps will kill him."

"That is very sad," remarked the Freule.

"Sad? If you saw what I see in one day, young lady, you would alter your ideas of grief."

"I was thinking of something else," replied the girl, to the doctor's annoyance, and she drove on through the mild May dampness, with grey thoughts in the gathering grey.

"Your uncle is well, I presume?" said Count Karel, when they met at the five o'clock dinner.

"He had a cold."

"He was always subject to colds. He does not pay proper attention to draughts. I merely inquire because, unless his health is equal to the exertion, you could not go to stay with him, dear Magda, in June."

"Do you find me very exhausting?" inquired Magda with a smile.

"I? Far from it. But a guest in a little household like Robert's must cause considerable commotion. Peter manages everything admirably; I should hardly have the same confidence in Paul. And Robert is a bookworm. My dear, if I thought you would not be quite comfortable there, I should not allow you to go." He looked across anxiously: this reflection had frequently been troubling him of late.

"Dear uncle, let us go there together," she said trembling. He did not answer at all, but in the middle of dinner, in his nervousness, took snuff.

"I met the doctor," she began presently, unable to bear the silence any longer. "He says that Father Cordes cannot live through the autumn."

"Doctors always say that," replied Count Karel incontinently. But his mouth twitched.

"He certainly is very old and feeble."

"I shall go and see him tomorrow, and tell him about my vinery. I am in hopes he will have, this year again, a bunch of grapes on the longest day." Count Karel spoke with unconcealed vaingloriousness; in those days that was a great achievement. Count Karel loved his greenhouse.

Next morning he went and told the priest, and the old man answered: "Count Karel, I thank you kindly. But oh, 'tis a branch of olive you should bring me first of all." The Lord of the Manor walked home in a rage, but several days elapsed before he remarked to Magda: "Yes, undoubtedly, Father Cordes is not very well just now. It is probably a passing indisposition."

"Poor, dear old man," said Magda.

"He is not so very old. He is not yet eighty." A long pause. "True, you are eighteen."

"Uncle, supposing the doctor were right? Supposing the father were not to get better." Magda stood looking out of the window. "Supposing he were to meet my mother, and—and—uncle, my mother never knew."

"How dare you?" exclaimed Count Karel, and walked out of the room.

"You are right in so far," said Count Robert two days later. "I have much respect for your judgment, Magda; for a woman's it is singularly sound. My brother has never sufficiently considered the importance of even our least significant actions, with an eye to the peasantry around. It is a mistake I have often pointed out to him, when we were—in the habit of conversing. Now this subject you have occasionally referred to, of our living together or separately—in itself it is a matter of slight signification (we have two houses)—but it has its exceedingly objectionable side."

"I am so glad to hear you say that, dear uncle," said Magda fervently.

The old man blinked his eyes. "I am alluding," he explained hastily, "to the Christmas Peace-making. Viewed with an eye to the Peace-making, it is illogical, absurd. I have often thought that. It is absurd. Now, supposing I was present, by accident, at the Peace-making, from a simple consciousness of absurdity, I should have to get up and take Karel's hand."

"You would forgive?" she panted.

"My dear, you are not as reasonable as I expected. No. Before my servant my brother called me 'an idiot.' To accept that epithet would be to render my position untenable."

"Paul! He is deaf. I am sure he never heard it. Have

you asked him?"

"It is not a subject one discusses with one's servant," said Count Robert stiffly.

She came up to him with an arch imperiousness and rang the little handbell by his side.

"My dear, you forget yourself!"

"Trust me," she said pleadingly, "not to do that."

And when Paul came in—"Paul," she began, "I think you have omitted—"

"I beg your pardon, Freule," interposed the old servant promptly. "I can't hear what you say."

"To do something I asked you the other day," shouted the Freule.

"I never heard you. I'm getting deafer. But I was always deaf. What was it Freule?"

"Paul," interrupted Count Robert suddenly. "The last time I conversed with my brother, did you happen to hear what passed?"

Magda cast the old servant, who adored her, a quick glance of intelligence.

"Not a word, Mynheer the Count," said Paul. "How could I? Why, that's but six years ago. I was quite as deaf then as now."

"You may go," said Count Robert calmly. "My dear, I was under the impression that we shouted. I am glad we spoke like gentlemen. Perhaps it was not as much of a quarrel as we thought. Still, he was very rude to me. I can never forgive him. But I admit that the Christmas Peace-making has become ridiculous. I miss my billiards, Magda; I hope you will develop an aptitude for the game. It is a logical game. I wish July was here; I am looking forward to your coming."

Magda went back to her Uncle Karel. She found him in a state of exultation. He had just secured, by chance, from an itinerant pedlar, a rare piece of genuine old Delft. He lingered in front of his show-cases, and she observed that he especially attracted her attention to the acquisitions of the last half-dozen years. "It is a pity," he said more to himself. "Robert was a very fair judge of a curio. Now you, Magda, you do your best, dear; you do your very best."

"Uncle Karel," said Magda, "in a few weeks I shall be going to Bardwyk for good."

"Till the 31st of December," corrected the Count, with annoyance. "I cannot help it. I am exceedingly vexed. I shall miss you most dreadfully. Do not agitate me Magda. I am the elder; you cannot expect me to take the first step."

"The second?" begged the girl, with her arm round his neck.

"Nor the second. He called me an idiot before my servant. Me, the head of the family—no man would stand that."

"But, dear uncle," said Magda, half laughing. "You called him an idiot too!"

"In the second place, Magda, I called him an idiot, most certainly. I was right. He was an idiot. As far as that goes, we were both idiots."

"In that case, dear uncle, you, with your natural perspicacity—forgive your little niece; Uncle Robert is so deliberate, so logical, but he is very much slower in coming to a conclusion than you—you, with your quickness, your keenness of perception, I am sure you would have realized the situation,

would have expressed your opinion of it much sooner than he."

"Dear me, there is something in that!" said Count Karel. "You think I must have been the first to discover he was an idiot?"

"I am sure of it," replied Magda demurely, and kissed her uncle's hand.

Count Karel took a few steps up the drawing-room and down again. "In any case, I refuse to consider the matter before Christmas," he said. "I refuse absolutely; do you understand? It would be unfair to your Uncle Robert, who has a right to your six months alone with him. It would be mean. I do not think I have ever done a mean thing. He would say that was my motive. I refuse absolutely. You will particularly oblige me by not mentioning the subject again."

"You will particularly oblige me," said Uncle Robert next week, "by not mentioning the subject again. I should have no objection to a satisfactory settlement with Karel pro forma, though I cannot forget that he erroneously mistook me for an idiot. But I have always resolved that any such form of reconciliation should take place exclusively at Christmastide, at the Peace-making. That ceremony I consider the only raison d'etre of a truce. Our example, I understand, has had the most disastrous effects. The whole neighborhood is in a more lawless and quarrelsome condition than it ever was before. And no wonder. Logic, after all, rules the world, though short-sighted philosophers deny it. The Peacemaking has gone to ruin. There are families that have quarreled for years. But for us to restore it, personally, as we could do, forever, would be humiliating in the extreme. Of late, my dear, I have thought it all out. We have no further choice; we must either remain absurd or become contemptible. I should not object to the Peace-making; but it is forever impossible. Take a book."

Magda went and told the priest and they wept together. "In no case shall I see their reunion!" sighed Father Cordes. "My days on earth are numbered, I cannot live two months."

"I can do no more. I give it up," said Magda, weeping. "Let us speak of other things. There is one thing I have long been wanting to ask you to do for me, father. On the 17th of June is the anniversary of my mother's death. I want you to let us read a Mass for her and to hold a short commemoration service in this church of yours she loved so well."

"I will come myself," said the old man, trembling.

It was during the following night, in a dream, that the great thought came to Magda. Eagerly she went across to Bardwyk, and begged of Count Robert to come. "I loved her dearly," said Count Robert; "I cannot reasonably refuse to be present. Magda, you are a good girl, I would not hurt your feelings. However, I shall not sit in our chairs: You must see I have a seat on the opposite side of the chancel."

Magda stopped at the pastorage, and held a long confabulation with the father. He blessed her at parting, his hand on her sunny young head.

"Your Uncle Robert coming?" said Uncle Charles. "Well, that shall not keep me from being present. We want such a peace-maker here as your mother, my dear. The long feud between two families at Bardwyk ended yesterday, Peter tells me, in a murder."

"God forgive the guilty," said Magda under her breath. He glanced across at her quickly. "The Father is failing fast,' she said.

"He will outlive Robert and me," replied Count Edelstam testily; "but young people always think the old are going to die."

"He will never conduct another Christmas Peace-making," said Magda.

"We shall see when Christmas comes," replied the Count defiantly.

"When Christmas comes," repeated Magda, and she looked away into the pale blue sky. "When Christmas comes."

"You are pledged to reticence," said the Count meaningly, "till Christmas comes."

"Yes," answered Magda, "Christmas."

"When does Christmas come?" she suddenly exclaimed—"Whenever the Lord Christ, surely, is born into human hearts. Christmas! it is the Lord Christ's coming! It is his message of peace and his birth of goodwill!" She passed out into the summer night.

For the ensuing weeks she was busy in the little village church. She renovated it entirely with deft fingers, preparing its ornamentation as if for a festival. When the day approached, its altars shone bright with fresh gilding, new embroideries, a profusion of flowers. All the last afternoon she worked hard, admitting no one. Only Father Cordes lent her assistance. It had been her especial desire that the service should be held at the same solemn hour as the Midnight Mass of Christmas Eve. She had conquered her uncles' opposition. "It was the time of my mother's death," she reminded them.

And thus, when the hour was come, the peasants, for miles around, crept through the balmy stillness of a soft midsummer midnight to the blazing portal of the little church. In his stall by the high altar, robed and shrouded, white with approaching dissolution, sat the hoary parish priest they had all known all their lives. And, opposite each other, on both sides of the chancel, gazing neither right nor left, but at each other, sat the two Lords of the Manor, the old Counts Edelstam. Between them knelt my mother, thinking of her mother, praying as the pure and loving pray for the pure and good. The humble little church was a splendour of lights and roses white roses, the symbol of peace and of innocent grief. And lo! before the altar in the place where all were accustomed to see it each December, was the presentment of the holy Nativity in the manger, the worship of the shepherds and the princes, the song of the angels, the evangel of Peace.

There was nothing unusual in the service—the Mass for the Dead. It was not until quite towards the conclusion that the unexpected occurred. The old father got up from his seat, and, tottering, came forward. His broken voice rose shrilly, gaining in strength.

"Blessed are the peace-makers for they shall be known as the children of God."

It was the little Christmas service of the Peace-making. falling in where it would have fallen, at the end of the Midnight Mass. When the customary brief allocution was reached. the old priest gasped for breath. In a few simple words he told his hearers that he would never keep Christmas with them again; he had grieved to see how dissensions had increased among them; the recent murder had filled all Christian souls with horror. Once more before God called him away to his rest. he desired to hold among them the wonted festival. He had chosen this anniversary of the death of her to whom the institution owed its origin, the blessed peace-maker that had long been called away from their midst. "But the eternal Prince of Peace is here," said the father: in the utter silence his feeble words fell low. "He is here, and He is waiting for His birth in every heart. And His message is the same, my children, yesterday, tonight, and forever, the message of forgiveness and good-will."

As he ceased speaking, the simple village choir, but little disconcerted, raised the familiar chant of the Heavenly Host, and the whole congregation took it up. As the Christmas Anthem filled the building the two brothers left their places—none has ever distinguished who moved first—and silently crossed the chancel and grasped each other's hands.

The father stood, with arm uplifted, transfigured, upheld.

Out of the congregation, before any other could stir, two old men pushed their way to the front, and, below the chancel steps, Paul and Peter embraced.





Christmas

MODERN scholars have an unpleasant habit of destroying our most cherished illusions. It matters little to them how long an erroneous belief has persisted; their business is to determine its origin in fact and trace its history, thus relieving our minds of prejudice and also, not seldom, of much poetical illusion. Yet the readjustment of opinions which follows such a process is not without compensations. The history of the development of a belief is in itself a fascinating study for the light it throws upon race psychology and the human habit of overlaying facts with poetry, of changing the obvious, the commonplace, into something new and strange. Some such attendant compensation follows the investigations of modern scholarship into the origin and observances of our most cherished festival, that of Christmas.

Most of us have always believed that many of the common practices, the pretty customs of Christmas time, were of Germanic and pagan origin, practices which early Christianity approved as a means of bringing the observance of Christmas in harmony with deep-rooted social customs. This, upon investigation, seems to be only in part true, and a review of history is necessary to show the exact proportion of truth that the general statement contains.

It must be remembered that for several centuries before the conversion of the German tribes to Christianity, Roman influences, Roman law and custom, were dominant in the larger part of Europe and in Britain as well. Germany, Gaul, and Britain were Roman provinces, ruled by Roman governors and garrisoned by Roman legions. The conquered races occupied a subordinate place; they were vassals to the allconquering Roman. Through several centuries this Roman
rule was maintained, weakening only as the might of Rome
failed and the Roman legions were called home to quell domestic disturbances; and during all these centuries the ruling
race forced its own laws and customs upon the subject tribes,
changing the native customs and manner of life to an extent
often hard to determine, but doubtless very considerable. So
it was that the Roman festival periods such as the Saturnalia,
Brumalia, and the revelries which celebrated the new year,
the Ides of January, festivals observed by the Roman legions
and the Roman citizens throughout the Empire, were accepted
by the tribes of Germany and Britain.

The dates of these important Roman celebrations are of great interest. The Saturnalia, a time of great license and unrestrained hilarity, was observed from December seventeenth to December twenty-third. The Brumalia celebrated December twenty-fifth, our Christmas day, a day which in the Roman calendar was supposed to be the shortest of the year. The New Year's celebration was but a week later. Thus, roughly speaking, the whole latter half of December was one great holiday time, celebrated with many interesting and peculiar observances, many of them decidedly immoral, some of them beautiful.

The festival periods of the German tribes did not at all correspond to those of the Romans. The chief celebration seems originally to have occurred, roughly, during the first half of November, the cattle killing time, when fresh meat was plentiful. This seems also to have corresponded to the Teutonic New Year's festival, the German year ending with the gathering of the crops and the slaughtering of the cattle. The Roman and German holiday periods were thus somewhat at rivalry, the native celebration anticipating by forty days the Roman festivities of the Saturnalia. The two customs, native and foreign, persisted side by side and their relative importance became largely one of emphasis. That the December celebration outstripped its rival is apparent from later developments. That the German celebration in November

persisted far into Christian times is apparent from the recognition accorded it by the church, which, following its usual policy, seized upon this surviyal from pagan times and made it a matter of church observance by associating with it the celebration in honor of St. Martin. This action of the Church was taken in the middle of the sixth century, November 11 becoming the recognized day of St. Martin, Martinmas.

The action of the Church in this instance is typical of the method it employed in dealing with the other festivals of Roman origin which had been adopted by the German tribes and by the Britons. Impossible to root out, these festival periods were made to coincide with church observances, nowhere more notably than in the instance of Christmas.

The early Church had not been greatly interested in the date of Christ's birth nor in the observance of the day. The Epiphany, which celebrated Christ's baptism in the Jordan, received the entire emphasis, the day being January sixth. In the fourth century, however, the Church determined upon the celebration of the Nativity. The exact date was, of course, impossible to determine and December 25 was selected for at least two very interesting reasons. The first undoubtedly was that December 25, Brumaire, was already a festival day and in the festival period of the year. By, so to speak, Christianizing this day in giving it important religious significance, the Church aimed at transforming pagan practices to Christian usages. In the second place the Church was desirous of changing the Roman calendar. January 1 was thought an improper day on which to begin the New Year. The turning point of the year, supposedly December 25, was considered the more logical date. Therefore, by making this one of the most important days in the Christian calendar, the Church hoped ultimately to make it the beginning of the new year. This purpose, as we know, failed, largely because of later conflicting practices and theories. Christmas, however, had been established and was observed as a day of Christian significance, the first recorded instance being in the year 354, by the Roman Bishop Liberius. Slowly the observance spread throughout the entire Church.

But, though officially recognized as a day of the Church calendar, the popular recognition of Christmas was of slow growth, largely because of the competition of other festivals sanctioned by long usage. For centuries, therefore, we find the Church resorting to various expedients to emphasize the observance of the day. Not until the twelfth century is there evidence that the Church felt it necessary to curb the Christmas customs, which, at this period, had assumed a spirit of revelry foreign to the religious nature of the day. It is only in comparatively modern times, in fact, that Christmas has assumed the importance that we now attach to it as a day of love and goodwill. The steady growth of this emphasis may be ascribed to the influence of the Church in transferring and modifying pagan customs. As folk days of pagan origin lost their significance Christmas grew in importance, gradually becoming the chief day of the twelve days of festival which, beginning on December 25, extended to January 6, Epiphany.

An interesting illustration of the movement by which Christmas became the greatest day of the Christian calendar may be taken from the history of Scandinavian countries. Until the tenth century the Northmen were pagan, celebrating certain periods of the year peculiar to their calendar. The chief of these was, in the ninth century, observed about the middle of January and it was not until the reign of Hakon the Good of Norway (940-963) that the January festivities were transferred to December 25, this act signalizing the conversion of the Northmen to the Christian faith. The northern Yule, with its picturesque observances, thus became identified with Christmas.

The common observances of Christmas as celebrated in America of today thus go back to very old folk customs in Germany, in England, and in Scandinavia. There are, moreover, elements of Roman origin which in the course of the centuries have become greatly changed. Each nation which has come to the observance of Christmas has contributed its part to the festive customs of the day, and Americans, as befits their mixed ancestry, share in all this diverse wealth of tradition.

Of all Christmas customs that of the Christmas tree is perhaps the most beautiful. The history of this essential feature of a modern Christmas reveals again the transference of customs from one day to another. The practice of decorating houses with branches of fruit trees seems to have originated in Italy, from thence brought by the Romans to Germany and England. Originally the custom was connected with New Year's Day. Branches of fruit trees were, in anticipation of the day, placed in warm water so that they might break into leaf and blossom as an augury of the new year. If full-leaved and beautiful, it was held a good omen. This interesting superstition ultimately became attached to Christmas observances in a most fascinating way. In the tenth century a myth of oriental origin became current in Europe, to the effect that on the night of the nativity many wonderful things happened, among which was the bursting of the forest trees into leaf and blossom. It was but a step to associate this legend with the traditional New Year's practice, and in the course of centuries this was done, the decoration of houses with branches of trees and young trees becoming finally a Christmas rather than a New Year's custom. It is interesting to note, however that the first authentic reference to a Christmas tree occurs, it is said, so late as 1604. This was in the city of Strasburg, the tree being adorned with paper roses, apples, etc., evidently in the spirit of the old legend.

To trace the history of other peculiar Christmas observances would require much elaboration, but in brief they all go back to Roman, Teutonic, English, and Scandinavian customs. The use of mistletoe is probably of Druidic origin, the mistletoe being sacred to the Druidic cult. So with the yule log and other ceremonies, each indicating some old custom, the significance of which it is now almost impossible to determine because of its antiquity.

Our Puritan ancestors in their anxiety to rid themselves of all ceremonial in any way connected with the Roman Church, did away with the Christmas festivities to which their English ancestry entitled them. Thanksgiving became, instead, the time of rejoicing. But of late years, due doubtless in part to

the German element in our population, the American Christmas has come to resemble the German Christmas, as a time of festivity, of gift making, and of goodwill. The Christmas tree has become a national institution and unless the demand for trees constitutes a menace to our forests bids fair to remain so. In England, too, the Christmas tree has been added to the English observances of the day though in that country, it is interesting to note, the custom was not adopted until so late as the reign of Queen Victoria.

Vesper Hour*

Conducted by Chancellor John H. Vincent.

OUR readings for the present month are taken from that very remarkable little volume by the Reverend Doctor George Matheson, entitled "My Aspirations." The first of our readings for the month is A Vision of God's Perfect Day, founded on the statement of Genesis I, 31: "And God saw everything that He had made, and, behold, it was very good."

"It was all very good at the last, the evenings as well as the mornings. The darkness and the sunshine made the one day and brought the retrospect of rest. Oh, Thou divine Creator! Give me the faith in Thine own experience. Help me to believe in the ultimate glory of my evenings. I call Thee good in the morning hours, when the sun of life is mounting high and the blaze of hope is dazzling. But I have not yet learned to thank Thee for the evening. I call it chance, accident, misfortune—everything but goodness. Thou art creating me against my will. My progress is from the evening to the morning. My conscious darkness is the birth-hour of my day. Thou art never nearer to me than in my shadows of evening. It is over the face of my troubled waters that

^{*}The Vesper Hour, contributed to The Chautauquan each month by Chancellor Vincent, continues the ministries of Chautauqua's Vesper Service throughout the year.

Thy Spirit broods. Thou art bringing life out of my billows. In the storm and in the darkness Thou art speaking and shining. Thou art preparing my Sabbath through the night, my rest through unrest. When Thou hast finished my creation I shall know how glorious have been its evenings, how full of hidden light, how rich in golden suns! From the heights of Thy Sabbath rest I shall judge all things. I shall look back upon my past, and, behold, there shall be no night there. I shall say with Thee in Thy Sabbath, It is all very good.

"The Christian has a sense of divine guidance, as did Israel when God in the daytime led them with a cloud and all the night with a light of fire.—Ps. 78:14.

"My Father, Thou hast been leading me both by day and by night; but Thy guidance by day has been different from Thy guidance by night. By day I have had Thy cloud, and by night I have had Thy fire. The cloud is the special need of my day; the fire is the special need of my night. My day is my prosperity; it is the time when the sun of fortune is bright above me, and, therefore, it is the time when I need a shade. The light would make me dizzy if it were not for the cloud. If my sunshine were not chequered I would forget Thee, O my God! Therefore it is that I can say, with one of old, "The Lord is my shade on my right hand; the sun will not smite me by day." But I have nights to meet as well as days. The night is my adversity; it is the time when the sun of fortune has gone down behind the hills and I am left alone, and then it is, O my Father, that I need the light of Thy fire! Thy fire is Thy love which warms because it shines. When my soul has gone down into the shadows it craves the sight of a star, and it finds it in the star of Bethlehem. My light for the night is the vision of Calvary—the vision of Thy love in the Cross. I need the light of Thy fire all the night. The cloud will suffice for only part of the day; but the fire will be needed for every hour of darkness. It is natural for the bird to sing in the sunshine; but it needs a perpetual miracle when "He giveth songs in the night."

"My Father, gird me still with Thy presence, both by day and by night—by day with Thy cloud, by night with Thy light of fire. By day, teach me to remember my weakness, and by night, tell me where lies my strength! By day, point me down into Gethsemane; and by night, lead me up into the mount of transfigured glory! By day, show me the burden, and by night, reveal to me the crown; so shall my days and nights be girt about with Thee!

"There is a meekness which inherits nothing. There are two kinds of calmness in this world—the calmness of the stagnant pool and the calmness of the deep sea. The one is quiet because it has nothing to say; the other because it restrains itself from speaking. And it is this latter that is the glorious thing-not the meekness that speaks not because it is empty, but the meekness that speaks not because its depths are full. Why is it that I admire the gentleness of Jesus? There are hundreds of voiceless souls in the world that do not strive nor cry. Yet I do not call them divine; wherefore has this Man's gentleness made Him great to me? It is because in Him I find the calm that I find in nature—the calm which does not exist because it needs to be, but because it chooses to be. I know that you fair sky could, if it chose, break into frowns and thunders, and I prize the quiet as the voluntary gift of the day. Even so, I know that beneath the silent surface of this divinest life there are depths innumerable, voices unspeakable, feelings unfathomable, powers immeasurable. I know instinctively that no man taketh His life from Him; He has power to lay it down, and He has power to take it again. I know that if He would, He could bring His legions of angels to turn Gethsemane into Sinai-to change the calm into a storm, and I reverence the strength that will not do it. O Thou divine power of meekness, I bow before Thy marvelous strength! I stand amazed in the presence of that might which could empty itself of all might. Thou art more wonderful to me in Thy cross than in Thy crown. Thou art greater to me in what Thou hast given up than in what Thou possessest. Thy glory is Thy shame. Thy Majesty is Thy self-surrender. Thy kinghood is Thy service. Thy power

to rule is Thy power to bear. Thou art the Head over the body of humanity; just because, without complaining, Thou takest the pains of all its members. Thy gentleness hath made Thee great; Thy meekness hath inherited the earth.

"They that wait upon the Lord shall renew their strength!" Isa. 40:31.

"It is a glorious thing to feel the fullness of youth. It is a grand thing to have the sense of morning. It is the joy of having the world all before me—the thought that my opportunities are yet to come. What golden dreams I had when I was young! What visions I had of what I would do at noon-day! How the airy castles danced and sparkled in the sun! But now the noon is passed and the castles have faded. I have not realized the dreams of my boyhood. The imperial palace of my fancy has melted into the light of common day. Was it, indeed, all a dream? The prophecy was not founded on earthly experience, but for that very reason I hoped that its origin was Divine. Whence did I derive the golden dream? It came to me before I knew the world; therefore, it seemed to come from other worlds, and I trusted it was supernatural. Yet it is unfulfilled. Morning is faded, noon-tide is passed, the afternoon is far spent, evening is drawing on, but the promised glory has not come.

"Be still, my soul, it is coming! The sense of morning is yet to be revived in thee. Natural youth faints and grows weary, and its ideal is not realized. But natural youth itself was all along but a shadow—but the counterfeit of a spiritual dawn. Morning is coming back to thee, oh, my soul—back to thee, with the pulses of a new life, with the boundings of a new hope, with the freshness of a new heart, with the energy of a new will. In God thy past shall be cancelled and thou shalt be free—free to begin again with the unimpeded joyousness of a child at play. In the Cross of thy Lord all other crosses shall be banished. Thy years of remorse shall no more trouble thee. Thou shalt be a new creature; it shall be all tomorrow, and no yesterday. The dark deeds shall be undone, the hard words unspoken, the lost chances

restored, the golden dreams revived in the life of God. They that wait upon the Lord shall renew their strength.

"They shall mount up with wings; they shall run; they shall walk! Is not this a strange descent in the scale of aspiration? To begin with the wing, then to subside into the run, and at last to settle down into the sober walk: it seems a process of decline. Nay; it is the true order of the spiritual life. When the Spirit of Christ first enters into my soul it causes a fluttering of the wings. I am caught up in rapture to meet my Lord in the air. The world, with its allurements, fades in a far distance, and the inhabitants thereof are as grasshoppers; my faith as yet is but a flight. By and by I touch the solid earth, but only as the runner touches it, with swift and momentary step. The first flutter of the heart has subsided, but the even pace is not yet come; my faith is not weary, but it is running. At last the race itself subsides into the walk, and that world of common day which the wings of the spirit had scorned becomes again compatible with the religious life; my faith can now face without fainting the things of common day-I have learned to walk with God.

"And this, my soul, is the triumph of thy being—to be able to walk with God. Flight belongs to the young soul; it is the romance of religion. To run without weariness belongs to the lofty soul; it is the beauty of religion. But to walk and not faint belongs to the perfect soul; it is the power of religion. Canst thou keep thyself unspotted in the world? Canst thou walk in white through the stained thoroughfares of men? Canst thou touch the vile and polluted ones of earth and retain thy garments pure? Canst thou meet in contact with the sinful and be thyself undefiled? Then thou hast finished thy course with joy—thou hast surpassed the flight of the eagle!"

The German Kaiser

IV. Some Impressions of W. T. Stead.

[These extracts are taken from an article published by Mr. Stead some years ago in the English "Review of Reviews" of which he is editor.]

IF the Emperor reminds some people of Lord Randolph Churchill, minus the temptation to frivolity and wilful self-indulgence, he reminds others of the first Napoleon in more ways than one. There is no doubt at least one enormous difference between them. Napoleon was a man without a conscience. William II. has a highly developed moral sense. Whether or no William has even a trace of the genius of Napoleon is a point upon which as yet there is no trustworthy information. He may, or he may not, have a genius for war. Those who stand nearest to him profess to believe that if the occasion should arise he would prove that he possessed a military genius that would do no discredit to the fame of the greatest of the Hohenzollerns. Every one must hope, however, that this latent genius may never have an opportunity for its manifestation. Let it be taken for granted, rather than demonstrated, inasmuch as its demonstration is impossible without war. But in some other respects the resemblance between the German Emperor and the first Napoleon is conspicuous. William is as much of an actor as Napoleon. In both intense self-consciousness colours every action. Each is a poseur of the first rank. Their fundamental idea of government is identical. It is that which corresponds to the star system of the theatrical manager, where the whole program is framed for the benefit of a single star actor. As Napoleon was the French star, William will be the star of the German troupe. In both the jealousy of those who play subordinate roles is very marked. They brook no rival near their throne. They will be helped rather by second-rate Ministers than by first-rate men, whose renown might obscure the Emperor. William resembles Napoleon, also, in the devouring appetite which he has for detail, and the miraculous memory he possesses for everything that concerns him. The Grand Duke Constantine,

when Lord High Admiral of the Russian Fleet, at one time was able to tell you off-hand the name, strength, characteristics, and the position of every warship in the navies of the world; and the German Emperor possesses the same kind of gift. M. Taine, in his fascinating sketch of Napoleon in his last published work, leaves you under the impression that the little Corsican constantly carried in his mind a complete inventory of all the artillery of Europe. William II. has just that sort of memory which stands him in good stead in his imperial and kingly activity. Like Napoleon, William finds nothing too great and nothing too small for his attention. Not only does he interfere in all his departments, but in the midst of all the affairs of State he finds time to personally superintend rehearsals of new dramas at Berlin, as Napoleon drew up regulations for the Parisian theatres when seated as a temporary conqueror in the captive Kremlin. They are like each other, also, in their jealousy and fear of clever women, and their preference for a feminine ideal that finds its complete satisfaction in the kitchen and the nursery. To fill the cradle and to spread the table—that is enough for women in the opinion alike of Hohenzollern and of Bonaparte.

KING BY DIVINE RIGHT.

It is very interesting to see in Central Europe, in the last ten years of the nineteenth century, a king who not only believes that he reigns by right Divine, but who is accepted by Europe as having a fair claim to that position. A hundred years ago the French Revolution proclaimed, amid thunder and lightning and earthquake befitting the final passing away of an old era, that old kingships had come to an end, that in the future the world was to be governed on new democratic principles. A full century has passed since Louis's head fell by the guillotine, and here we have the German Emperor, not as a pale and shivering ghost apologising for its return to the haunts of men, but as the governing fact of the whole European situation. Here I am, here I remain;

sic volo, sic jubeo, as I will, so I order. Nothing can be more uncompromising than the assertion of the Emperor of his sovereign position. He is no make-believe sovereign who reigns but does not rule; he is the man on horseback and no mistake. None of the great sovereigns of the Middle Ages could more seriously try to play the part of terrestrial Providence. It is true, as he reminded us on one occasion, that he accepts the saying of the Great Frederick that the Prussian King is the first servant of the State, but that is quite consistent with his feeling that he is its master.

"THERE IS ONLY ONE MASTER, AND I AM HE."

There is a wonderful passage in one of Heine's best-known writings in which he describes how he saw the Emperor Napoleon at Dusseldorf. "I saw him, and on his brow was written, 'Thou shalt have no other Gods before me.' " At Dusseldorf, on one occasion the Emperor William made a speech in which he asserted his right to a prominent position in terms so characteristic that they had to be subsequently explained away in an official version. What he actually said was this, as reported at the time:

"Now, as ever, I am assured that salvation lies in cooperation. This is one of the results of Monarchy. There is only one master of this country, and I am he. I shall suffer no other beside me. In this spirit I drink to the welfare of the Province. (Prolonged cheers.)"

In the official version this assertion of his mastery of his country disappears:—

"That I am now, as ever, convinced that salvation lies only in the co-operation of all the parts, and that one must, therefore, follow the Monarch in his efforts for the welfare of the whole, I drink my glass of German wine to Rhenish Prussia. May it flourish and prosper now and to all eternity! 'Rhenish Prussia. Hoch! Hoch!'



"The Nightmare of the Globe."

An Austrian Conception of the Kaiser.

THE JUSTIFICATION OF ARMAMENTS.

The ordinary sneer of the disarmament people at an apostle of peace who is armed to the teeth is silly, and due to their happy ignorance of the conditions of existence in states which were never blessed with a streak of silver sea as a natural and insuperable barrier against invasion. Apart from the absolute necessity of maintaining an armament large enough to safeguard the frontiers of Germany, it is idle to expect the heir of the Great Frederick and of the fighting Hohenzollerns to see things through the spectacles of the Peace Society. We have surely seen enough of the folly of that among our own kinsfolk. No humanitarian expressed.

so vigorously the Peace Society view of war, as the author of the "Biglow Papers"; but it was the self-same singer who declared—

"Ez fer war I call it murder, there you have it plain and flat,
And I need to go no furder than my Testament for that"—
who, when the unity of the Republic was in danger, cried:

"God give us peace; not such as lulls to sleep,
But sword on thigh and brow with purpose knit!
And let our Ship of State to harbour sweep,
Her ports all up, her battle lanterns lit,
And her leashed thunders gathering for their leap."

The Emperor was born in Lowell's later phrase; he never experienced the former, nor, indeed, would disarmament make for peace. A reduction of the armaments of Europe by one half would more than double the danger of an immediate outbreak of war; it is the very immensity of the stake that makes the possible players hold their hand.

HIS PACIFIC PLEDGES.

It may not be useless to string a few of them together, beginning with the speech he made before his accession, and concluding with more recent utterances. Addressing the Brandenburg Diet, when he was still Prince William, in February, 1881, he said:—

"I am well aware that the public at large, especially abroad, imputes to me a thoughtless inclination for war and a craving for glory. God preserve me from such criminal levity. I repudiate such imputations with indignation."

When he opened his first Reichsrath, June 25, 1888, he was very explicit on this point. He said:—

"In foreign politics I am resolved to maintain peace with every one so far as lies in my power. My love for the German army and my position in it will never allow me to jeopardise for the country the benefits of peace unless the necessity is forced upon us by an attack upon the Empire or on its allies. Our army is intended to insure peace to us, or, if peace is broken, it will enable us to fight for peace with honour. With God's help it will be possible for the army to do this by reason of the strength which it has derived from the military law recently passed by you unanimously. To use this strength for aggressive war is far from my heart. Germany needs neither fresh military glory nor any conquests, since she has finally won for herself by fighting the right to exist as a united and independent nation."



Three Generations.—The Kaiser, the Crown Prince, and the latter's son.

Early in January, in 1889, when he opened the Prussian Parliament, he told his subjects:—

"You will be able to commence your work the more cheerfully, inasmuch as the relations of the Empire to all foreign states are friendly, and because from my visits to friendly rulers I gathered the conviction that we may confidently cherish the hope of the continued preservation of peace."

Twelve months later he assured the Diet that "to the joy of the Emperor and King, Germany's relations with foreign Powers are everywhere good." In April, 1890, speaking on board the Fulda, he said:—

"If in the press and in public life symptoms of danger appear, one must console oneself with the thought that matters are not nearly so bad as they seem. Trust in me to preserve peace, and if the press sometimes interprets my remarks differently, think of the old saying of another Emperor—'An Emperor's words are not to be turned and twisted and quibbled over.' "

Coming back to Berlin to open the Reichstag on May 6th, he said:—

"To maintain peace on a durable basis is the unceasing object of my efforts. I may express the conviction that I have succeeded in inspiring all foreign governments with confidence in the loyalty of my policy in this respect. The German people recognize, as do I and the august Princes of the Confederation, that it is the duty of the Empire to protect the peace by maintaining our defensive alliances and friendly relations with foreign powers, in so doing to ensure the advance of well being and civilization. But in order to accomplish this task the Empire has need of a military power in proportion to the position it holds in Europe."

After his return from Russia in August, 1890, an Austrian ex-diplomatist published what professed to be an interview with the Kaiser, in which he used the remarkable phrase that at Friedrichsruhe Bismarck had attempted to force upon him perpetual war abroad and war at home:—

"Well, I determined to have peace, and shall force peace upon the domestic foes of the Empire, as well as upon its foreign enemies. I must complete the work which my grandfather, who died too soon, had not time to accomplish—Germany united and Europe pacified, that is my grand dream."

THE VIRGIN'S SONG TO HER BABY CHRIST.

Jesu sweet, my baby dear!
On meager bed thou liest here,
And that me grieveth sore;
Thy cradle is a manger mere,
Ox and ass are thy meek frere:
I needs must weep, therefore.

Jesu sweet, be thou not wroth
Though I have nor clout nor cloth
Thee, warm, to enfold.
To enfold and wrap thy rest,
Though thou be of robe divest,
Yet lay thy feet unto my breast
And keep thee from the cold.

Adapted from a Middle English Song.



LUTHER'S CRADLE HYMN.

Away in a manger, no crib for a bed,

The little Lord Jesus laid down his sweet head.

The stars in the bright sky looked down where he lay—

The little Lord Jesus asleep on the hay.

The cattle are lowing, the baby awakes,
But little Lord Jesus, no crying he makes.
I love thee Lord Jesus! Look down from the sky,
And stay by my cradle till morning is nigh.



"The Holy Family." By Rembrandt.

The character of the scene is unmistakably indicated by the appearance of the small angels, partly copied from those in Domenichino's Communion of St. Jerome which Rembrandt would know from engravings. It may be noticed also in passing that in almost all these pieces the occupation of the carpenter is clearly indicated so that there can be no doubt as to their character. Both Mary and the Child are delightful successes. She wears a deep crimson over blue, and the white fichu and cap are flecked with lovely cool greys that enhance the warm carnations on the foreshortened face. The book she is holding is evidently a Protestant Bible, perhaps the one that figures in the inventory of 1656, in double columns with marginal references, and is a miracle of still-life painting, in which we seem to see the leaves curl up and hear them rustle as she bends forward to look into the cradle. Her solicitation is charmingly natural but needless, for the infant is very fast asleep. Rembrandt has sought for Him on Raphaelesque beauty, but made Him a stolid little Dutch child that reminds us somewhat of a baby by Hogarth.



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THAT HOLY THING

They all were looking for a king
To slay their foes and lift them high;
Thou cam'st, a little baby thing
That made a woman cry.

O, Son of Man, to right my lot Naught but thy presence can avail. Yet on the road thy wheels are not, Nor on the sea thy sail!

My how or when thou wilt not heed, But come down thine own secret stair That thou may'st answer all my need— Yea, every bygone prayer.

George Macdonald.



A LETTER TO THE SENIORS.

Christmas greetings to members of Class 1909:

Our class has from the first had somewhat of the Christmas spirit; hope, generosity, cheerfulness and faith have in some measure been ours, and these treasures have increased in the past three and one half years. We stand now at the middle of our last year of reading; next August we graduate. Is any

one behind in his reading—let him take heart again, knowing that the goodwill of all class members is with him. Is one discouraged, or lonesome—he may know that the faith and courage of us all is behind him, bearing him up. Let no one give up the work and fall out; we must graduate as many as possible, and gather a goodly company for the final exercises next August.

I look out from my window on the white spire of the ancient village meeting house. In the belfry there swings an historic bell, resonant with the memories and traditions of the generation who have lived on this soil. There is one device in plain raised letters across its bronze surface. It is this: "Peace on earth, goodwill toward men." This pure Christmas message is the one that rings out across the landscape, calling citizens, neighbors and friends together for common worship. May it ring out for you, and bless you in the ringing!

Faithfully yours,
WM. CHANNING BROWN,
President of Class 1909.

Littleton, Mass.



A WORD STUDY.

Professor Reich's book offers rather an unusual opportunity for word study; possibly because being an Austrian and presumably having acquired his vocabulary in mature life, he was not at first habituated to a limited range of expressions.

The following words are with some few exceptions in quite common use among cultivated writers and speakers, yet we often pass over them in our reading without clearly defined ideas of their meaning. Some of our readers may enjoy exercising their wits on the accompanying word study. The blank spaces when filled in with the thirty-one words given below, will make a connected narrative. In a few cases the use of a certain word in a given connection may be questioned, but in general the missing links may be supplied by words that are obviously correct. Circle members may like to work out the scheme at home and then compare notes at the meeting, in this way bringing out some nice distinctions in the use of language.

To was circus s	made in a classor inla	od town Viewed in	ite senecte
It was circus week in a sleepy inland town. Viewed in its aspects the community presented a somewhat in its kistory. For			
once, aroused from its it had suddenly developed a surprising			
• • • •			
wholly foreign to its usual condition. The for circuses in-			
herent in small boys led to various on their part to gain admission to that			
mysterious which lay just back of the circus tent where were housed the			
living skeleton, the snake charmer and other heroes whose achievements had estab-			
lished for them a which had already them in the youthful			
imagination arguments by grown-ups designed to the boys'.			
desire to run away with the circus had no effect. The youths perceived the			
for this parental wisdom and with great established where			
with some they upon the merits of the circus and			
the of its performers, who were not to be judged by ordinary			
standards. This was in fact a circus One of the lads whose financial			
status never could be brought into with his ambitions, took the			
in proposing a of the most daring spirits who from a sheltered corner			
should suddenly upon the circus police, carrying with them			
and so gain free entrance to the show. But the of two of the group-upset			
the plan. The well-known skill of the chief of police, they urged, would			
insure their not coming out of the encounter And so the scheme came			
to naught, vanishing like other dreams into the ether.			
acrimony	doctrinaire	lethargy	pusillanimity
apotheosis	enclaves	manoeuvres	raison d'etre
canonized	expatiated	mundane	subvert
coalition	hinterland	par excellence	tactical
correlation	homogeneity	phenomenon	unanimity
debouch	imponderable	predilection	unique
decentralized	incomparable	prestige	unscathed
devastation	initiative	psychological	٠



AN ART STUDY COURSE FOR GRADUATES.

A new course in the History of Painting has recently been prepared for the use of graduates. It is divided into two sections, the first covering the period from the Renaissance to the nineteenth century, and the second from the beginning of the nineteenth century to the present time. The course was planned at the request of the Jamaica, Long Island C. L. S. C. Aluminae Association, which has engaged in the study of a great variety of graduate courses since the members finished their original four years' course many years

ago. These Jamaica Chautauquans write very enthusiastically of their work. They are using unmounted photographs contributed by some of their members who have travelled in Europe; and prints from the Bureau of University Travel; they have access to an excellent library furnishing many of the recommended books; they have purchased some books for use in class and with papers and discussions are doing very thorough work. The secretary writes:

"Our members are very enthusiastic and eager to learn as much as possible and make the meetings informal as well as instructive. I am sure we shall have a delightful year and I shall be glad if you will kindly tell Mrs. Zug, who prepared the course, how very satisfactory it promises to be. I am sure it will prove one of the popular special courses for graduate circles."

Members of graduate circles or individual readers can secure the study pamphlet for this course by sending one dollar to the Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, New York. This covers the enrollment fee. The course is not limited to graduates, though it was prepared primarily for their benefit. Graduates applying for the pamphlet should state their respective classes.



A HOME CIRCLE IN BRAZIL.

South America is gradually being encircled by Chautauqua readers. Along the coast of Chile members are to be found at Concepcion and Santiago. A graduate of 1908 lives in Uruguay, another at Mercedes in the Argentine Republic, and the members of a "home" circle near Rio de Janeiro in Brazil belong to the Class of 1911. A letter from this little group of Chautauquans is most welcome. It is dated as follows:



Outlook from Presbyterian Church, Nova Friburgo, Brazil, of which a member of the Class of 1911 is pastor.

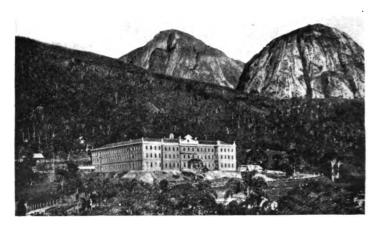
"Yours of July 3 is at hand, bringing us Chautauqua greetings and asking for 'a little glimpse' of our work and surroundings. We subscribed for last year's reading for the benefit of our three growing girls who read the books and The Chautauquan in course in order to keep green the spirit of Yankeeland; for we live in a social atmosphere found nowhere under the stars and stripes. Our town lies high in the 'Switzerland of Brazil' amid green and lofty mountains, 'a joy forever,' and hence a summer resort for people from 'the hot city beautiful,' Rio de Janeiro. Friburgo is a school center, site of a famous seminary of the Dorothy Sisters for girls and the great Jesuit College Anchieta for boys. The chief Sunday amusement is bull fighting, an unusual pastime in Brazil. The Brazilians are Latins, generous, bright, and homeloving.

When I can be with my family for a few days between my missionary journeys the Chautauqua books have a place for me among the joys of home. They are so well prepared that we quite sympathize with the letter of President James published in your February number, for we came here from the University of Illinois. When Bishop Vincent last lectured there he was heard as one of the great achievers of the century. In answer to your request I enclose two views, one of the Praça Paysandu, a beautiful little park just in front of our Presbyterian Church, and the other a glimpse of the Jesuit College Anchieta, which we catch from our windows. With best wishes for your continued success with The Chautauquan,

Very cordially yours,

THOMAS J. PORTER."

1 Avenida Santos Dumont 1, Nova Friburgo, Brazil, August 11, 1908.



Jesuit College Anchieta, Nova Friburgo, Brazil, as seen from the Home of Three Chautauquan readers.

A COMMUNICATION FROM 1908'S HISTORIAN.

Members of the Class of 1908 at Chautauqua last summer were eager to devise some plan by which they might be able to communicate with each other and so perpetuate the class spirit. They therefore elected as Historian Miss Una B. Jones, feeling sure that her ingenuity would evolve some way in which to bring about the best results. The following letter will be welcomed by all members of the class.

Dear Graduates of 1908:

It is my pleasant duty to keep in touch with you all and report to our Mother Chautauqua. We have had such a pleasant, profitable summer and met so many new friends with whom we wish to keep in contact, that, with your help, we will continue our acquaintance and also try to tell some of our experiences to the ones who were not able to come to Chautauqua this summer.

I want to hear from you all concerning your C. L. S. C. work past and present; about the difficulties and pleasant memories; and the work you intend taking up now. Would you not like to join a letter circle and hear directly from the graduates of 1908 from different parts of the world? Separate circles may be formed for those taking up different courses. If anyone has other plans I shall be glad to have suggestions.

With best wishes for you all. Sincerely yours,

UNA B. JONES, Stittville, New York.

The name of the historian was unfortunately omitted from the class directory in the October Chautauquan, and the Round Table editor must also correct, with many apologies, the mistake in the name of the president. It should be Mr. H. R. Hartley.

As the Magi came bearing gifts, so do we also,—gifts that relieve want; gifts that are sweet and fragrant with friendship; gifts that breathe love; gifts that mean service; gifts inspired still by the star which shone over the City of David nearly two thousand years ago.—Kaie Douglas Wiggin.



C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS:

OPENING DAY-October 1. Addison Day-May 1.

BRYANT DAY-November 3. Special Sunday-May, second Sunday.

Special Sunday-November, second Sun-International Peace Day-May 18.

day. Special Sunday—July, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9. INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Satur-

COLLEGE DAY-January, last Thursday. day after first Tuesday.

LANIER DAY-February 3. St. Paul's Day-August, second Satur-

Special Sunday-February, second Sunday. day after first Tuesday.

LONGFELLOW DAY-February 27. RECOGNITION DAY-August, third Wed-

SHAKESPEARE DAY-April 23. nesday.



OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR JANUARY.

FIRST WEEK-DECEMBER 31-JANUARY 7.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "The Friendship of Nations," Part IV. Armies the Real Promoters of Peace.

In the Required Book: "Seen in Germany," Chapters I-III. Common Things, The Kaiser, The German Private Soldier.

SECOND WEEK-JANUARY 7-14.

In the Required Book: "Seen in Germany," Chapters IV-V. A View of the German Workingman, The German Professor.

THIRD WEEK-JANUARY 14-21.

In The Chautauquan: "Dutch Art and Artists," Chapter IV. The Painters of Domestic Scenes.

In the Required Book: "Seen in Germany," Chapters VI—VIII. The Reichsanstalt, A New Industry, A Venture in Practical Philanthropy.

FOURTH WEEK-JANUARY 21-28.

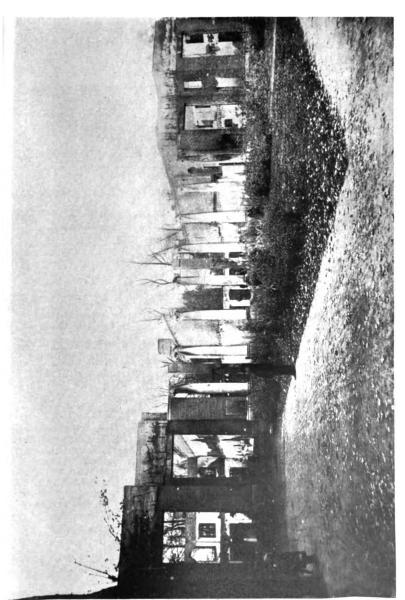
In The Chautauquan: "A Reading Journey in the Hollow-Land," Chapter IV.

The Island of Walcheren and Zeeland. The Dead Cities, Rotterdam, The Hague.

In the Required Book: "Seen in Germany," Chapters IX.—XII. German Ship Building, Some Educational Ideas, Student Life, The New Germany.



The Chautauqua Rear View of the Colonnade, Chautauqua, N. Y., destroyed by fire November 19, 1908. The Chautauq Print Shop houned in the basement was entirely destroyed together with the November CHAUTAUQUAN.



Front View of the Colonnade after the Fire.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

FIRST WEEK.

- 1. Roll Call: Answers to the question, In what respects do you feel that the article on "Armies the real Promoters of Peace," is convincing and in what not so? The Circle might be divided into two groups, each side trying to get the point of view assigned to it. What about the men whose whole lives are devoted to inventing or preparing works of destruction? Is there economic waste here? What of the mental atmosphere created by constant reference to war possibilities?
- Discussion: "A French View of the Kaiser" (in this magazine) in view of the Kaiser's recent difficulties in Germany, with reports also of the latest developments in this direction.
- Oral Report: "Life of Maarten Maartens." (See "Warner Library of the World's Best Literature.")
- 4. Book Review: Maartens' "God's Fool" or other of his novels.
- Paper: Some characteristics of Dutch Life as seen in Maartens' novels; or comparison between the works of George Eliot and Maartens.
- 6. Reading: "A Summer Christmas." Maartens. (See this magazine.)

SECOND WEEK.

- 1. Review and discussion of Chapter IV "Seen in Germany."
- Roll Call: Brief reports on German manufactures: woolens, flax and hemp, cotton, silk and velvet, metal goods, locomotives and machines, porcelain, glass works, perfumery, dyestuffs, paper, leather goods. (See encyclopedias.)
- Reading: Selection from "The People's Theatre in Berlin." (See THE CHAUTAUQUAN 41:187, April '05.)
- Paper: Tribes and religions in Germany. (See encyclopedias and available works on Germany.)
- Reading: Selection from "Reminiscences of Lady Randolph Churchill," Century Magazine 76:207-11.
- 6. Book Review: "The War In The Air," by H. G. Wells, a recent novel, by this famous author, with a war moral; or review of article in McClure's Magazine for October, 1908, on "Delusions Concerning Alcohol." Selections from this will be found also in Rev. of Rev. 38:619, November, 1908.

THIRD WEEK.

- 1. Review of required lesson in "Seen in Germany."
- 2. Roll Call: Berlin celebrities. (See articles on Berlin in THE CHAUTAUQUAN 41: 121 and 216, April and 'May, 1905.)
- Paper: Herman von Helmholst. (See Scribner's Magazine, 18:568, Century Magazine 27:687.)
- 4. Reading: "Driving out the Duel." (See Rev. of Rev. 38:495 October, 1908, or from "What Germany can teach us" World's Work 15:9913 February, 1908, or "How Germany makes Toys for the Worlds' Christmas," Rev. of Rev. 36: 708 December 1907.)

- Brief Paper: Deventer the City of Ter Borch. (See "The American in Holland," Griffis, chapter XIX.)
- Study and Discussion: The works of Ter Borch and Metsu. (See "Masters in Art" on each of these painters and other references in bibliography.)

FOURTH WEEK.

- Review by Leader: Dutch History from 1672-1813. (See Rogers' "Story of Holland," Larned's "History for Ready Reference," etc.)
- Reading: "The Walcheren Expedition." (See "Larned's History for Ready Reference," Volume 2, pp 947-8.)
- Biographical Sketch: Louis Bonaparte. (See "Larned's History for Ready Reference," Vol. 3, pp 2298-9.)
- 4. Reading: "English and Dutch in the Past," by Mrs. J. R. Green, Rev. of Rev. 21:81-2, January, 1900.
- Roll Call: Items of special interest relating to Middelburg, Flushing, Rotterdam and neighboring towns. (See "The American in Holland," Griffis; "Holland and Its People," Amicis, and other available books.)
- Study and Discussion: The works of De Hooch and Vermeer of Delft. (See "Masters in Art" and bibliography in this magazine.)



THE TRAVEL CLUB.

Special programs for Graduate Circles and Clubs specializing upon the two Dutch series. (A copy of Baedeker's "Belgium and Holland" is quite indispensable for such clubs.)

FIRST WEEK.

Roll Call: Legends of the Dutch St. Nicholas (See "Dutch Life in Town and Country").

Brief Paper: Life of Maarten Maartens. (See "Warner Library of the World's Best Literature.")

Book Review: Maartens' "God's Fool" or other of his novels.

Oral Report: Characteristics of Dutch Life as seen in Maartens' works.

Paper: Comparison between the works of George Eliot and Maarten Maartens.

Reading: "A Summer Christmas," by Maartens. (See this magazine.)

SECOND WEEK.

Paper: Review of Dutch History from 1672-1813. (See Rogers' "Story of Holland,"
Larned's History for Ready Reference," etc.)

Reading: The Walcheren Expedition. (See Larned's "History for Ready Reference," Vol. 2, pp 947-8.)

Biographical Sketch: Louis Bonaparte. (See Larned, Vol. 3, pp 2298-9.)

Brief Reports: Middelburg; Flushing. (See "The American in Holland," Chapter on Zeeland in "Holland and Its People," and Baedeker.)

Readings: Black Forest Rafts on the Rhine (See selection in The Chautauouan Vol. 35:92, April, 1902.); Dutch Costumes. (See "Holland Described by Great Writers," page 166, "Holland and the Hollanders," last chapter.)

THIRD WEEK.

Roll Call: News relating to Holland.

Paper: Deventer, the city of Ter Borch. (See "The American in Holland," Chapter XIX.)

Oral Report: Rotterdam. (See all available books.)

Paper: Schools and School Life. (See "Dutch Life in Town and Country," Chapter XIII, also "Holland and the Hollanders," chapter on How Holland Educates.)

Study and Discussion: The Works of Ter Borch and Metsu. (See "Masters in Art"

on each of these painters and other references in bibliography.)

FOURTH WEEK.

Roll Call: Answered by giving at sight the name of the artist and the subject of some Dutch picture previously studied.

Reading: From Thackeray's "Round About Papers," Notes of a week's holiday; Selections from Longfellow's "Poems of Places": Holland.

Paper: Administration of Justice in Holland. (See "Dutch Life in Town and Country," Chapter XVIII.)

Reading: "English and Dutch in the Past," by A. S. Green, Rev. of Rev. 21:81-2

Jan. '00.

Study and Discussion: The Works of De Hooch and Vermeer of Delft. (See "Masters in Art," and bibliography in this magazine.)



REVIEW AND SEARCH QUESTIONS ON JANUARY READINGS.

THE FRIENDSHIP OF NATIONS, CHAPTER IV. ARMIES THE REAL PROMOTERS OF PEACE.

1. Show how the cause of peace has sometimes been injured by its advocates.
2. Give illustrations of the peace spirit of members of our army and navy.
3. What advantages has the European system of army training compared with that of feudal times?
4. How does the cost of our army compare with that of Germany?
5. What per cent of the total government expenses of Germany, Great Britain and the United States respectively is due to the army and navy?
6. Compare the military and naval expenses of the United States with the expenditures for improvements recently determined upon in New York.
7. Why is it difficult to compare the strength of navies?
8. In what various ways have navies become more efficient?
9. How does the improvement in modern weapons compare with the percentage of losses in battle?
10. Compare the death list of our railroads with that of our army.
11. How has the element of personal combat been reduced in modern times?
12. What claim does Germany make as to the value of her army as a training school?
13. How are great military establishments "an insurance against war"?

A READING JOURNEY IN THE HOLLOW-LAND, CHAPTER IV.

1. Why is entrance to Holland by way of Zeeland especially recommended? 2 What characteristic sights does the traveler meet? 3. What historic association has the island of Walcheren? 4. What importance has Flushing? 5. Describe the

town of Middelburg and its people. 6. What strange quality has Veere? 7. What importance has Domburg? 8. What are the external characteristics of Dort? 9. Who are some of the famous men of Dort? 10. What two significant gatherings were held here? 11. What is the character of Rotterdam's population? 12. What is its chief claim to remembrance? 13. What famous painter was born here?

DUTCE ART AND ARTISTS, CHAPTER IV. THE PAINTERS OF DOMESTIC SCENES.

- 1. How did the cessation of war in the Netherlands affect Dutch painting? 2. What significance has the word genre as applied to art? 3. What kind of effects did the Dutch genre painters aim to produce? 4. Give an account of the early life of Ter Borch the Younger. 5. What important picture did he paint at Münster? 6. How far was he influenced by other artists? 7. What are some of his characteristic methods of work? 8. How do the composition and drawing of "The Guitar Lesson" show a master's hand? 9. What may be said of his frequent use of the same model? 10. How does Ter Borch compare with the other "Little Dutchmen"? 11. What characteristic feature of the artist's work is shown in "The Visit"? 12. What is known of the life of Gabriel Metsu? 13. How many of his pictures have survived? 14. How did he compare in versatility with Ter Borch? 15. How does he suggest Ter Borch in his "An Officer and a Young Lady"? 16. In what respects does he show his own distinct qualities? 17. How does "An Old Toper" show the marks of Metsu's genius? 18. Why do we call De Hooch and Vermeer of Delft artists of temperament? 19. What are the known facts in the life of De Hooch? 20. How does he convey in "The Buttery" the sense of tranquility in the home? 21. Show how his picture "The Country House" illustrates his use of color and light. 22. What evidence have we of the high repute of Vermeer of Delft in his own time? 23. How was his work rescued from a strange oblivion? 24. In what respects is his "Young Woman Opening a Casement" typical? 25. How does his marked individuality express itself? SEARCH QUESTIONS.
- 1. What is meant by the Vasari of Dutch Art? 2. What great struggle was terminated by the "Peace of Münster"? 3. Who was king of Spain in 1648? 4. How did the Mauritahuis, the home of the Hague Gallery, get its name? 5. What Dutch ruler was requested by the people of Deventer to have Ter Borch paint his portrait? 6. Why has it been difficult to ascertain the facts regarding the life of Pieter de Hooch? 7. What Dutch painter has left a portrait of De Ruyter?
- Who was Whistler?
 For what is Ary Scheffer famous?
 What odium rests upon the Synod of Dort?
 Who was Lady Mary Wortley Montague?

ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON DECEMBER READINGS.

- 1. Mare Liberum. The Rights of War and Peace. 2. It attracted so much attention that Great Britain had to employ her greatest legal authority, Lord Selden, to reply to it. 3. A copy of it was found in his tent after his death on the field of Lutzen. 4. Treaty of Paris in 1856. 5. The Brussels Declaration in 1874.
- 1. From Milton's "Lycidas." 2. The defeat of the united fleets of France and England by Admiral de Ruyter in 1673. 3. Holland's colors are red, white, and blue placed in horizontal lines. Belgium's are red, yellow and black placed in three vertical stripes. 4. Nederland.

NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES

"That opening chapter in Reich's 'Foundations of Modern Europe,' " said Pendragon, "has started off our year's work with a sort of bomb-throwing exercise which seems to have put us all on the alert at the very outset. The frank expressions of opinion are delightful to hear! Perhaps we shall not all agree with our fellow readers, nor with the author, but that is well if we are careful to keep our prejudices in the background. You remember what Professor Drummond once said regarding what it is to be educated:

'Anything that draws us out, anything that leads us on—that we are to seek, for that is education—the gradual, careful, symmetrical unfolding of all our powers.— It shows itself in the individual, in the attitude and temper of his mind, in the balance of judgment, the large grasp of affairs, the power of concentration, and the genius for hard work.'

"It seems fitting," he continued, "to open the Round Table with this letter from a Circle in Washington, D. C., as it is natural for people at the center of things governmental to feel strongly on diplomatic questions. The Circle is small, three graduates and one member of 1909, but evidently wide awake. The delegate writes:

"We meet twice a month, and being too busy to write papers, we use the questions to start discussion, from which we gain much. Every member takes issue with Professor Reich concerning the Revolutionary War. We quite agree, no one cause brought it about, but many things conspired together. If he ever spent five years in the United States, he did not obtain here the misconceptions set forth in his first chapter. We all insist that full credit is given the French people for their assistance, and that our historians fully set forth the fact, that without the aid thus received we could scarcely have won our cause. One well-read member contends that Beaumarchais was but the agent for the French Government, and that all materials and munitions of war were paid for by 1835. His chapters on Napoleon are proving more satisfactory, as they are from a standpoint new to many of us. The magazine article on Holland is voted by all most interesting. The chapter on Dutch Art starts out well and promises to be charming. The cuts in the magazine are fine, being much praised. Since becoming a world power ourselves, we are glad to be thoroughly up on public events and persons abroad. We are all on the lookout for new members and hope to report an increase soon."



"I think perhaps our point of view is a little different," remarked the delegate from Colchester, Connecticut, Miss Clark, "we feel that coming from a writer who is so great a student of history and philosophy there is much in it for us to learn. He stimulates our thought. We could hardly accept his idea of the causes of the American Revolution or wish to aid in carrying out his suggestion of erecting a monument to Beaumarchais, observing the motive that prompted his deed rather than the deed itself. While we have the utmost veneration for Lafayette, who aided us with words of sympathy and courage during the dark days of our early struggle for freedom. It may be of advantage to us to read the book in the light of 'As others see us.'

"'The Friendship of Nations' we find practical and instructive, bringing us into close touch with these distant countries; for we are interested in seeing these nations struggling to gain their liberty and fall into line with the progress of civilization. Our

current events have not been selected with reference to the Chautauquan work, but more to keep in touch with the affairs of our own nation. We thank you heartily for the good things you have put in our way. Our Circle is only a year old. I had been thinking for some time of joining and I found several neighbors who were like minded, so we started with five. We did our work with enthusiasm and before the year closed we numbered ten. This year we have fifteen members. We are fortunate in having six members who have traveled in Europe and one who was for some years a prominent lawyer in New York City. We invite into our meetings any who we think would be interested to join us and have gained new members in this way and we loan our books.



"Our next speaker," said Pendragon, "Rev. Mr. Hall, of Evergreen, Alabama, reports from the far South. The name of the Circle has most appropriately a Christmas suggestion about it." "The Evergreen Circle," responded the delegate, "has over twenty members. It has been meeting fortnightly in the primary room of the Baptist Church, though some of our members would prefer weekly meetings.

"The 'Foundations of Modern Europe' has been entrusted to a member of the local Bar whose historical lore inspires the Circle with fear and envy. To a lady member has been committed the magazine articles on Dutch Art and Artists, and to the president the Reading Journey in Holland, with the expectation that the leader in each case shall make himself a specialist and have charge of the subject throughout the entire session. Mr. Reich's book has been handled partly by quiz and partly by papers assigned to other members by the leader. It has aroused much discussion. Some think it stimulating and helpful to have their history receive so many jolts. Others, not prepared to tamely surrender their historical orthodoxy, inquire rather plaintively if it is worth while to know so many things that are not so.

"The Reading Journey in Holland bids fair to prove the most popular of the magazine articles, though the discussion of Franz Hals last month, aided by pictures and engravings contributed by several members, was exceedingly interesting."



"We must next have this interesting glimpse of a day in the life of an individual reader from Atlanta, Georgia," said Pendragon. "The writer modestly extends to us his 'sympathy,' but you will all agree that we don't need it—the pen picture is so well done. It hardly seems quite fair to call Mr. Cornett an 'individual' reader, though three members properly constitute a Circle. In this case perhaps we may fall back upon the old proverb, 'two's company!'

Dear Pendragon:

"Dr. Reich opened my eyes to some of the truths of American history. Of course I was aware, in a small way, of the debt these United States owed France, but when I read the opening chapter of his book, I realized how we had fallen short of discharging our debt of gratitude and friendship. Dr. Reich writes the way the true historian should write, and from the few chapters I have read of 'Foundations of Modern Europe,' I feel and believe that Dr. Reich is the strong man to write ably on a great question.

"It is unfair for Pendragon to ask what anyone finds the most interesting in the

I have been trying to decide which subject is the most interesting, and every time I consider the 'Reading Journey in the Hollow-Land' 'Friendship of Nations' bellows into my ear, and before I have time to realize it I am in the midst of a veritable brainstorm. Let me say, though, right here, that the magazine isn't complete without the 'Vesper Hour.' That is about the first thing I read when I receive THE CHAUTAUQUAN. I read these little sermons three or four times a month. They are of benefit to me every day.

"The C. L. S. C. books are made in such a convenient size that I read them most anywhere. A few minutes in the morning, a page or so at lunch time, then in the afternoons when I ride home on the street cars. I live about fifteen minutes ride from the city and sometimes I finish my day's reading on my way home. Then after dinner and the newspaper my wife reads to me from the required book the day's lesson,—for at the beginning of each study week I go through the books and mark out each day's lesson in accordance with the study program for that week. And then after our review and discussion, I generally read to her from any of the obtainable books recommended in the suggestive programs for Circles.

"Neither my wife nor myself has ever had the opportunity of attending a college, but by our readings in the C. L. S. C. we are improving ourselves, and even though we never get inside a college door, we shall be enabled, by our readings, to do a little good in this life."

"Perhaps you may like to have my 'experience,' for I'm a genuine individual reader," commented a member from Chicago. "As I realized that I must read alone I adopted the following method: To first read, as thoughtfully and carefully as possible, the book or article; next, make notes in answer to the review questions, trying to make those answers a tolerably connected synopsis of the work; then read again the book and a second time the notes in the endeavor to fix in memory the salient points as well as gain the real thought of the author. This may sound laborious but I have so enjoyed the work, it has been such a labor of interest and love that in reality I have never passed a year in pleasanter fashion or a twelve-month which more appreciably broadened my view. I found that consciously or unconsciously I was taking greater notice of and interest in those matters of the daily news upon similar topics, seeing them perhaps from a different standpoint with a deeper sympathetic interest." An Indiana member from Frankfort contemplated her classmate with interest. "I consider The Chautauquan," she said, "quite the best magazine I ever saw. I shall never be without it."

"This very handsome little booklet of the Euterpean Club, of Eldon, Missouri," said Pendragon, "is worthy of your notice. You will see that they are making very thorough study of 'Foundations of Modern Europe,' using this as the one text-book for their year's study, and printing the review questions for each week in the year book. Papers on a variety of subjects and music constitute the other features of the program. Now we must close the Round Table with a message from the Dominion."

"You will notice I have changed my address from Davis, West Virginia, to Kingston, Canada," reported the delegate. "This is considerably farther north. The customs of the people are quite different from the States, but I enjoy the change. I find my 'English Year' benefits me here very much. This is my third year in Chautauqua

study. I read alone, but would enjoy belonging to a local Circle. This we do not have here, I believe, as this is a University city. I am very well impressed with the first book, 'Foundations of Modern Europe,' and am much interested in 'A Reading Journey in the Hollow-Land,' and think the Famous European Short Stories a good addition to the already very interesting magazine. The pictures are very fine and many are worth framing. I study the pictures along with the artist's life, and descriptions of each painting. I believe this will be a very helpful year to all and I hope to meet all of the Gladstone Class at Chautauqua in 1910."



REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "SEEN IN GERMANY."

CHAPTER I. COMMON THINGS SEEN IN GERMANY.

1. What is the first impression which Germany makes upon an American? 2. Give typical instances of things which are "verboten." 3. What are some of the duties of the police? 4. How does this police vigilance affect the community? 5. What may be said of the security of German cities? 6. What great merit has the German cab system? 7. Compare Germany's mail and express system with ours. 8. Give instances of social formalities. 9. How does the German improve upon our advertising methods? 10. What limited ideas of America has the ordinary German? 11. How do many Germans learn English? 12. What is true of Germany's electrical development? 13. What evidences does Germany show of its machinery age?

CHAPTER II. THE KAISER.

1. What impressions of the Kaiser's personality do we get from his photographs and why? 2. What is his attitude toward dress? 3. 'What are some of the German criticisms of him? 4. What enthusiasms has he shown at different times? 5. How is his interest in the navy especially exhibited? 6. In what way is his commercial shrewdness shown? 7. How has he manifested his interest in sculpture and why?

CHAPTER III. THE GERMAN PRIVATE SOLDIER.

1. What aspects of Germany impress the traveler as he crosses the French border? 2. Into what periods is the life of the soldier divided? 3. Why has Germany produced very little soldier-boy literature? 4. How does the soldier spirit in Germany contrast with that of France? 5. What two kinds of army positions are open to the young German? 6. Why is it a misfortune to be barred out of service? 7. What kind of discipline is first imposed upon the new recruit? 8. What is the "long step"? 9. What is the nature of his gymnastic training? 10. Describe some features of the military drill? 11. How does "the battle thinker" stand in Germany as compared with some other nations? 12. How is the German soldier educated? 13. What is the general position of the one-year volunteers? 14. What was the expense of the German army in 1900? 15. What its strength on a peace footing? 16. How is German economy illustrated in the soldiers' rations? 17. What is the general character of the German private? 18. How do the military and the civil service strengthen each other?

CHAPTER IV. A VIEW OF THE GERMAN WORKINGMAN.

1. Describe a German workingman's Sunday. 2. How do wages and hours in Germany compare with those in America? 3. How do food prices compare? 4. What are the staples of life for him? 5. What advantages has he as to the character of his food? 6. Describe a German working day. 7. How has this sort of life affected the German woman? 8. How has the army affected the workman? 9. What has been the effect upon agriculture? 10. What upon the price of labor? 11. How is the workman freed from the fear of want? 12. What two outlets from his present condition does he recognize? 13. How does suicide in Germany compare with other countries? 14. What experiment in short hours was tried at the Zeiss works? 15. What attempts to brighten the workingman's leisure hours have been made?

CHAPTER V. A GERMAN PROFESSOR.

1. How does the position of a professor in Germany differ from that of his American counterpart? 2. With what great scientists is Professor Haeckel of Jena associated? 3. Describe a visit to his study. 4. Under what famous men was he educated? 5. Characterize the most important of his works. 6. What remarkable capacity for work has he shown? 7. Describe his surroundings in Jena. 8. How has he expressed his artistic nature? 9. What have been some of his conclusions regarding evolution? 10. What are his views of some of the future problems of science?

CHAPTER VI. A TYPICAL SCIENTIFIC INSTITUTION.

1. What are some of the beneficial sides of the German "paternal system"? 2. Describe the work of the Reichsanstalt. 3. To what man has it been due and how? 4. Describe the buildings. 5. How are scientific men appointed for the work? 6. What is the expense to the government? 7. With what work does the Reichsanstalt deal chiefly and why? 8. What are some of the difficulties of securing accurate measurements? 9. To what interesting experiments at Jena did this work lead? 10. Show the ranges of temperature covered by Reichsanstalt investigations. 11. Describe its work in testing thermometers. 12. How is the unit for the measure of temperature determined? 13. How have the means of measuring light been improved? 14. What important experiments in chemistry are being conducted? 15. What has been done recently with the tuning fork? 16. Illustrate the delicacy of some of the experiments.

CHAPTER VII. HOW THE GERMANS CREATED A NEW INDUSTRY.

1. For what three things is Jena famous? 2. Describe the steps leading to the establishment of its great industries. 3. Show how typically German was the attitude of the government toward Dr. Abbe's work. 4. Describe the character of the new glass. 5. How have Professor Abbe's achievements aided the work of other men? 6. Why is he called the "father of the modern microscope"? 7. What two great manufacturing plants carry on his work? 8. What are some of the business methods of these institutions? 9. Describe the casting of a great lens. 10. What other skilled labor enters into the manufacture of a lens? 11. What are the processes of making optical glass? 12. Describe the making of a thermometer tube.

CHAPTER VIIL A GERMAN VENTURE IN PRACTICAL PHILANTHROPY.

1. What are the conditions of work in the Carl Zeiss Stiftung? 2. How has the institution spent money for the service of the community? 3. What has been the effect upon the workman? 4. How has the Stiftung aided scientific enterprises? 5. How have possible future changes in the institution been provided for?

CHAPTER IX. HOW THE GERMANS BUILD SHIPS.

1. How did the shipyard at Stettin compare in 1852 with those of England and the United States? 2. Show the development of German shipping since that time.

3. How has this industry been fostered by the government? 4. How is the merchant service prepared for possible use in war? 5. How does the German cater to the needs of the foreigner? 6. What are some of the problems of size and proportion presented by a ship like the Deutschland? 7. What attention must be paid to balance and vibration? 8. What to insurance and safety regulations? 9. Describe ome of the processes of molding the ship's skeleton. 10. What powerful machinery is employed in lifting weights? 11. Give some idea of the great size of such a ship.

12. Show the importance of her compartments. 13. What luxurious fittings has she? 14. How was the vessel finally started seaward?

CHAPTER X. * SOME NEW EDUCATIONAL IDEAS IN GERMANY.

1. How is the German instinct for education shown? 2. What two types of commercial school had Germany previous to 1896? 3. Describe the founding of a commercial University at Leipsic. 4. How was appreciation of it shown? 5. What is the nature of the courses which it offers? 6. Illustrate the German method of teaching by object lessons. 7. Describe the school-garden system.

CHAPTER XI. A GLIMPSE OF GERMAN STUDENT LIFE.

What fame attaches to Wollnitz?
 What picture does our author present of the scene before the duel?
 To what extent are the duelists protected?
 What are the chief characteristics of the performance?

CHAPTER XII. THE NEW GERMANY, HER PROSPERITY AND HER PROBLEMS.

1. Through what stages has Germany passed in the last fifty years? 2. What two classes threaten German stability? 3. What other perplexing contrasts does. Germany present? 4. Why have the prophets of evil thus far been discomfited?



Esperanto News

CHAUTAUQUA CONGRESS POSTPONED.

In answer to a letter of inquiry directed to Dr. Zamenhof, the creator of Esperanto, the Esperanto Association of North America received the following:

Varsovio, 20-IX-1908.
Al S-ro Edwin C. Reed, Sekretario de la Esperanto Associa-

tion of North America.

DEAR Sin: I received your letter of September 20th. To our American fellow-thinkers you can tell that I promised Sroj Forman and Privat that I would try to come to the Esperanto Congress in America, and I certainly shall do everything that I can to fulfil my promise. But to state at this time with full assurance whether I shall be able to come, is still impossible, because the matter depends on some circumstances which I cannot yet foresee.

Especially it depends upon the state of my health. At this

Especially it depends upon the state of my health. At this time it unfortunately is not very good: yet I hope that by summer it will again improve and I shall be able to undertake the great

voyage.

Great voyages and a long distance from home are very difficult matters for me, because it is not only involved with great expenses for me, which is for me sufficiently important, but it compels me for some time to throw away my medical practice (that is the source of my income) and—what is more important—the longer I remain away from home, the more my medical practice becomes ruined for the future. The American Congress would require from me not only greater expense than the other congresses, but also a longer absence from home. You therefore can understand that I, not being a rich man, can undertakes the American trip only in such case, if it were shown that my coming to America would really be very important for our affair.

Therefore I must wait awhile until I am acquainted with the character which the American Congress hopes to have. When the Constant Committee of the Congresses (whose president is General Sebert) assures me that your congress is prepared well and that we can expect from it a great success for our cause, then I shall use

all my power to come unfailingly to the congress.

Yours,

ZAMENHOF.

Shortly after receiving this letter, the Executive Committee received a telegram from General Sebert containing only these few words:

"Would you accept putting off your congress until 1910?"

Sebert.

The Executive Committee unanimously voted to accept General Sebert's proposal and official advice to this effect was forwarded to the Centra Officejo.

A NATIONAL CONGRESS IN CHAUTAUQUA.

The decision to hold a National Congress in Chautauqua in 1909 was then taken, with the intention to strengthen the Association and to hold the Congress at such date that it would be possible for the official delegates, provided with due credentials to go to Barcelona immediately after and to present to the International Congress the request of the Americans.

Hitherto, it has been the custom to seek some one from the persons present and to elevate him without further ado to the position of representative of the country from whence he came. The result was that the decisions of the Congress were in no way binding upon the different countries and this, the Esperanto Association of North America will attempt to remedy by demanding that duly accredited delegates be sent to its congress, so that if we are successful, as seems highly probable, the sixth International Congress of Esperantists will in reality be the first legally elected International Congress.

It is probable that other places will compete with Chautauqua for the Sixth International Congress and it will depend upon what support the Esperantists will find in Chautauqua among Chautauquans whether we are successful in having Chautauqua selected for

1010 or not.

La infano eliras el sia cambro li transiras la koridoron li sin direktas al la banĉambro li alvenas al la pordo de la cambro li malfermas tiun pordon, li eniras en la banĉambron.

Li transiras la bancambron, li alprokosimiĝas al la lavtableto, i alvenas al la bantableto, i haltigas antaŭ la lavtableto,

i etandas la brakon, i prenas la ŝtopilon, he takes the stopper, i metas la stopilon en la truon de lahe puts the stopper in the hole of the pelvo ellasas la ŝtoplion. metas la manon sur la tenilon e la kraneto,

a akvo elŝprucas el la kraneto sursprucas en la pelvo turniĝadas en la pelvo, leviĝas en la pelvo, plenigas la pelvon.

a infano fermas la kraneton, i la fluado de la akvo haltiĝas.

turnas la tenilon.

infano suprenturnas siajn manikojn, The child turns up his sleeves, mudigas siajn brakojn, prenas la sapon, malsekigas la sapon, frotas la sapon sur siaj manoj, remetas la sapon en gian lokon.

The child goes out of his room, he crosses the hall, he makes his way towards the bathroom, he arrives at the door of the room, he opens that door, he enters the bathroom.

He crosses the bathroom, he draws near the washstand, he arrives at the washstand. he stops before the washstand.

He puts forth his hand, he lets go the stopper, he puts his hand on the handle of the he turns the handle.

The water spurts out of the faucet, akvo frapas la fundon de la pelvon, the water strikes the bottom of the bowl, it splashes in the bowl, it whirls around in the bowl, it rises in the bowl, it fills the bowl.

> The child closes the faucet, and the flow of water stops.

he bares his arms, he takes the soap, he wets the soap, he rubs the soap on his hands, he puts the soap back in its place.

again,

Li fratadas siajn manojn unu kontraŭ He rubs his hands together, la alia.

la sapo elŝaŭmas ĉirrkaŭ liaj manoj, li purigas siajn manojn li eltiras siajn manojn el la akvo li lavas siajn manojn.

Li prenas la katenon, li tiras la katenon, la stopilo cedas la stopilo saltas el la truo, la akvo sin jetegas en la truon, kaj elfluas tra la tubo.

La akvo turniĝadas en la pelvo la akvo malsupreniras en la pelvo truon.

La infano ree metas la ŝtopilon en la The child puts the stopper into the bowl kaj replenigas la pelvon per akvo.

Spongo dependas de hoko. li etendas la braken, li prenas la spongon, li dekroĉas la spongon de la hoko, li subakvigas la spongon.

spongo, li eltiras la spongon el la akvo, li prenas la sapon, li saponumas la spongon, li remetas la sapon en gian lokon, li fleksigas super la pelvo, li levas la spongon al sia vizaĝa, he carries the sponge to his face, li purigas sian vizaĝon, he cleans his face, li metas la spongon sur la lavtableton, he puts the sponge on the stand near

Li fleksiĝas ankoraŭ pli, li prenas akvo en siaj manoj, li lavetas la vizaĝon kaj kolon.

apud la pelvo.

La akvo gutetas de lia vizaĝo kaj ree falas en la pelvon.

Pura viŝtuko kuŝas sur tableto, li prenas viŝtukon, li malfadas la viŝtukon, li portas la viŝtukon al sia vizaĝo, li viŝas ĉiujn partojn de sia vizaĝo la vistuko absorbas la malsekaĵon. the soap lathers around his hands, he cleans his hands, he pulls his hands out of the water, he washes his hands.

He takes the chain, he pulls the chain, the stopper gives way, the stopper jumps out of the hole, the water rushes into the hole and flows through the pipe.

The water whirls in the bowl, the water goes down in the bowl, kun lasta gargarsono ĝi m. laperas en la with a last gurgling sound it disappears into the bowl.

> and refills the bowl with water. A sponge hangs from a hook, he stretches forth his arm, he takes the sponge, he unhooks the sponge from the hook,

he plunges the sponge into the water. La akvo penetras en la projn de la The water enters the pores of the sponge, he takes the sponge out of the water,

> he takes the soap, he soaps the sponge, he puts the soap back in its place, he bends over the bowl,

He bends still more, he takes water in his hands, he rinses his face and neck.

the bowl.

The water drips from his face and falls back into the bowl.

A clean towel lies on a stand, he takes a towel, he unfolds the towel, he carries the towel to his face, he wipes all parts of his face, the towel absorbs the moisture.

Li metas la viŝtukon sur la sekigantan He puts the towel on the drying rod, bastoneton

li strecas la vistukon sur ĝi kaj la vistuko sekiĝas en la aero. Li denove presna sian spongon li lavetas la spongon en la akvo, li eltiras la spongon el la akvo, li tenas la spongon super la pelvo li premas la spongon la akvo eliras el la spongo kaj ree falas en la pelvon.

Li alkroĉas la spongon al la hoko, li ellasas la spongon, kaj la spongo sekiĝas en la aero. he stretches the towel upon it, and the towel dries in the air. He takes his sponge again, and rinses the sponge in the water, he takes the sponge out of the water, he holds the sponge over the bowl, he presses the sponge, the water runs out of the sponge and falls into the water again.

He hangs the sponge on the hook, he lets go the sponge, and the sponge drys in the air.

Talk About Books

THE AMERICAN IN HOLLAND. By William Elliot Griffiths. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Company. Pp. 396. Illustrated. \$1.50. With a singularly rich and varied history, religious, artistic, and political, it is not strange that so picturesque a country as Holland should find many interpreters. The painters have given their own version of what the country was and is. De Amicis, the cosmopolitan Italian, has pictured "Holland and Its People" in a delightful book which is an acknowledged classic. Meldrum, an Englishman, in his "Holland and the Hollanders" has made careful studies in Holland's present-day economic and political achievements, with much besides. Two little books by W. E. Griffis show by their titles a distinctly American point of view "Brave Little Holland and What She has Taught Us" and "The Pilgrims in Their Three Homes." To these Dr. Griffis has recently added "The American in Holland," in which the traveler sees this unique little country through eyes which are keen to discern the far-reaching political and religious significance of Holland's past struggles. The author possesses also that historic sense which delights to discover and trace the relation between men and events seemingly remote from each other, and the book is full of such allusions, bringing to light many very interesting and important connections between Holland and this country hitherto unrecognized by the average American. The book contains a graphic account of the Queen's coronation and some excellent illustrations. A particularly good map of Holland is also included.

THE SERVANT IN THE HOUSE. Charles Rann Kennedy. New York: Harper & Brothers. Pp. 152. \$1.25.

The dramatic portrayals of Biblical history were among the most important methods utilized by the Church of the Middle Ages to make vivid to young and old the truths of the spiritual life. The period of twilight which fell upon the drama during the period of moral decadence, out of which sprang the Puritan revolt against the theater, robbed the Church for a time of its birthright. Happily

in these days the drama is slowly coming into its own. The profound impression made by "Everyman" suggested new possibilities for the theater. Sculptor and painter have for centuries sought to portray the Christ as he expressed the spirit of their age. Poets and novelists have in recent years felt the subtle attraction of the subject, and it is not strange that the modern dramatist has come under its spell.

"The Servant in the House" has been presented on the modern stage to many thousands of people who have seen and interpreted it for themselves. The author wrote it as a man writes who feels that he has a message. The actors presented it in the same spirit. But there is a still greater audience out of reach of the theater who may find inspiration in the play, which does not need a stage setting nor visible actors to make its appeal to the imagination. Indeed, there are those who feel that for them it reaches a higher level when the imagination has full play without reference to the material stage. The characters are strongly individual and the author's ability to infuse into the personality of "Manson" a certain mysterious and irresistible quality is proof of power. One is reminded of the human and tender yet uncompromising angel in Watts' great picture,, "Love and Death." The play might be read in many a pulpit as a Sunday evening message for the new year. A more reverent or impressive service could not be desired.

THE PAINTERS SERIES: THE MASTERPIECES OF REMBRANDT. Sixty reproductions in halftone, 3x4 in. F. A. Stokes Company, New York. Parchment covers. 25 cents.

The advice once given by a music teacher to a pupil, "read omnivorously" might well be translated for the student of art into "look omnivorously." The power of appreciation of a great artist gained from the careful study of a single masterpiece is greatly enhanced by the study of a considerable number of his pictures, even though all of them may not reach the same high level. By this means one learns to recognize the artist's own distinctive traits as they express themselves in his varied moods. Hampered as the student of the works of a great painter may be, by his inability to see the originals, he can in spite of the absence of color gain some idea of the spirit of the artist through the study of worthy reproductions. "The Painters' Series" is commended to students, for it brings together in convenient form some sixty excellent halftones of the works of a single great artist. These form what is practically a small portfolio which may be carried in one's pocket and studied at leisure. The covers are lightweight parchment and the pictures are not encumbered with text. The man who hasn't money to go to Europe, nor time to visit a picture gallery may carry his own little picture gallery with him and open to himself unexpected sources of enjoyment. Already a dozen of these little booklets have been published, Rembrandt and Hals among others.

THE STANDARD GALLERIES: HOLLAND. By Esther Singleton. A. C. McClurg & Company: Chicago. 1908. 284 pp. 40 illustrations. \$1. Post. .08.

Forty-six well-chosen illustrations are naturally the feature which first attracts one to this convenient little guide-book. The pictures are typical of the art life of Holland. Many of them have been selected from the less well-known examples of Dutch art because, as the writer explains, there are many pictures in the Dutch galleries whose beauty appeals to the visitor, but which are less accessible than the famous works made familiar by the numerous reproductions. The book aims to help the ordinary layman not well versed in art criticism to enjoy the great galleries in Holland. It furnishes in convenient form just the material necessary to answer the questions which every intelligent visitor to a picture gallery instinctively asks. Facts about the artist, incidents which relate to the picture, to the times when it was painted, and brief comments by famous critics make the book thoroughly readable and informing. It is an admirable companion whether one is an actual tourist or a returned traveler who wants to recall his impressions of the Dutch galleries, or merely an art lover who hopes some day to take the trip to Holland.

A HAPPY HALF CENTURY and other essays. By Agnes Repplier. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Company. 1908. \$1.10 net.

This is a volume of essays in Miss Repplier's usual charming style. A partial list of titles will in itself indicate the nature of the book: "When Lalla Rookh Was Young," "On the Slopes of Parnassus," "The Literary Lady," "The Child," "The Accursed Annual," "Our Accomplished Great-Grandmother," etc. Miss Repplier confesses that she would have preferred to live in the earlier days of the nineteenth century; that is, as a professional writer the rewards for a woman's pen would at that time have been the most satisfying. Miss Repplier has resurrected many of these long-since-forgotten idols of the novel-reading young person. The modern reader is distinctly thankful to Miss Repplier for going over the perished masterpieces of these charmers in his place. It is very amusing to read our essayist's comments upon literary styles which are now as obsolete as the hoopskirt; but it must be a distinct bore to sift the few grains of amusement from the dreary mass of dullness. Equally interesting are Miss Repplier's comments on the minor poets of the early nineteenth century, a period in which any subject was regarded as fit material for didactic poems of intolerable length. Many of the gems of these now forgotten poets

have been culled by Miss Repplier and live again in her pages. Indeed, a few of them are so good that they should never pass even into temporary oblivion. Certainly that line of Dr. Grainger's poem entitled "Sugar Cane" deserves to live:

"Now Muse, let's sing of rats!"

FIRST AND LAST THINGS. By H. G. Wells. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$2.00.

The position which Mr. Wells has already attained in the world of thought makes every new book from his pen of far more than ordinary interest. In his last book Mr. Wells follows out a new line. The volume "First and Last Things" is a frank statement of the author's fundamental belief on all matters of importance, -morality, religion, marriage, etc. The book has an interesting origin in that it arose from personal confessions made by a group of thinking persons, of whom Mr. Wells was one. Mr. Wells found that his views on many important topics required such elaborate statement that nothing short of a book could do justice to them. Although a statement of personal beliefs, "First and Last Things" is very far from being of the autobiographical sort which we might expect. There is nothing in it of the confessional nature except in so far as confession explains belief. Mr. Wells declines to take the public into his confidence concerning his own conduct as an illustration of his views, and this is very rightly the case.

The most interesting parts of Mr. Wells' philosophy relate to social morality, which, as might be expected, Mr. Wells finds expressed in the ideals of socialism; in the denial of belief in individual immortality; and in a broad standard of judgment for the conduct of others. Many readers will not agree with Mr. Wells on many fundamental points. He will seem to them too kind a judge upon matters which they regard as of most fundamental importance. Yet it is only fair to apply to his belief the toleration which he accords the beliefs of others. We have to thank Mr. Wells for his frankness in discussing without hypocritical reserve subjects of which most of us are afraid to speak openly. The frankness of the revelation, the clearness and fluency of his statement, and the tolerant spirit of the writer as revealed in his book, make "First and Last Things" one of the most valuable books that Mr. Wells has yet given us.

LEAF AND TENDRIL. By John Burroughs. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Company. 1908.

Mr. Burroughs is always interesting by reason of his close and careful observation of nature and his simple and attractive way of presenting what he sees. This volume of essays forms, therefore, a welcome continuation of an already attractive series. With some of the more controversial positions of the book, however, many a reader will take issue. The essay upon "Animal and Plant Intelligence" seeks to disprove all thories which would attribute to animals any of the reasoning powers which are on the plane of human reasoning. Mr Burroughs attempts to prove his point that all animal action can be explained by reflex action alone, by recourse to many incidents which have come under his observation. That instances of animal intelligence which have come within the observation of other naturalists may not be so easily explicable by a narrow theory of reflex action is the suspicion which many readers will entertain.

The essay, "Gay Plumes and Dull," which seeks to disprove in part Darwin's theory of protective coloring in animals is far more convincing, the many exceptions to such a theory being noted and instances apparently supporting the theory explained on other grounds. Particularly interesting also is Mr. Burrough's contention that brilliant coloring in male birds is not to attract the female bird, but is merely a manifestation of what Mr. Burroughs terms "the riot of the male principle" that runs through nature.

APOLLO, AN ILLUSTRATED MANUAL OF THE HISTORY OF ART THROUGH-OUT THE AGES. By Solomon Reinach. Scribner's: New York. 1908. Pp. 338. Illustrations, 600. \$1.50 net.

The study of the history of art has been greatly enriched in recent years through the science of archaeology and the researches of the newer art criticism. For this reason there has been great need for a compact one-volume history of art which should take account of the latest conclusions of scholars. Happily this need was met two years ago by the admirable work of Solomon Reinach, entitled "The Story of Art throughout the Ages." A new edition, revised by the author has now been issued under its original title. "Apollo," used in the French editions. The author is a member of the Institute of France, his name, in spite of its German form, being pronounced Reynach. His ability has long been recognized by scholars who have welcomed this book as an important contribution to the study of art. The opening chapters at once captivate the reader. Recent researches have carried our knowledge of primitive man far back into the milleniums before Christ and traces of surprising artistic developments have been discovered in races about whom our knowledge is most meagre. From these misty beginnings the "story" is traced on down through the ages. Nor is it, as one might suppose, little more than a bare chronicle. The author is master of a remarkably compact style, and his narrative is interspersed with critical comments of the most illuminating character. The book combines the qualities of a popular history with scientific accuracy in a very unusual degree. It is copiously illustrated with small but admirably executed halftones, and its com-

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pact form makes it a convenient guide book for the traveler or art student.

THE ART OF THE NETHERLAND GALLERIES. David C. Pryer 380 pp. 5½x8. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. 1908. \$2.00 net.

As supplementary reading on Dutch Art, Chautauquans will be both entertained and delighted by the contents of this book. The author. who was formerly editor of The Collector and Art Critic, understands those details regarding painters and their work which people want to know by way of learning to appreciate. He speaks from observation and authority sufficient to guide the actual traveler to the best in the collections in Holland; his discussion is, moreover, unstilted, enthusiastic, and suggestive to those who take their arttravel by means of the mind's eye. There are forty-eight reproductions of paintings in the volume. Some sixty pages are devoted to the great list of nineteenth century painters and the prediction is made that in the emulation of the Dutch spirit-nothing elsewe see the time approaching when the American school will outstrip its pattern. Incidentally we note the pertinent criticism of the new hanging of "The Night Watch" in a single room of the Ryks Museum instead of at the end of a long vista which formerly delighted every visitor. Discussing the title of this masterpiece Mr. Preyer says:

"It is not only possible, but most probable that the popular title, "The Night Watch," for short, was given to the painting from the beginning, and that for the following reason: In Holland the military division of watches in garrison towns, even to this day, makes the Night Watch, to man the various posts at the city gates and barracks, commence at five o'clock in the afternoon. To reach the gates from the Doelen, in the center of the city, would require the preparation for marching to be made at four. Now we notice that the shadow cast by the Captain's hand is at an angle of 45 degrees. This indicates the height of the sun in summer in Holland at four o'clock in the afternoon, as the sun does not set before eight o'clock. This Company, therefore, comes down the steps of the Doelen, as the Night Watch, to march out to relieve the Day Watch, and later, after midnight, they will be relieved by the Morning Watch."

As Others See Us. A Study of Progress in the Unied States. John Graham Brooks. 5½x8. 365 1p. \$1.75. New York: The Macmillan Company. 1908.

Readers of THE CHAUTAUQUAN for the American Year do not need to be reminded of the unusual quality of Mr. John Graham Brooks' studies which were published in this magazine. He opened an entirely new field to Americans, even those who are reasonably

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familiar with writings on American institutions, making us see ourselves in a way calculated to do us good, entertaining us delightfully the while. It was gratifying to note that The Dial said of these Chautauquan articles: "No other of our current magazines is at present doing anything quite so interesting as this: the special merits of the work being its candor, its willingness to accept legitimate criticism without resentment, and its broadly philosophical outlook." Their publication in book form will bring further deserved public attention to this decidedly unique and valuable piece of work. The text makes 346 pages, incrased to 365 by bibliography and useful index. We repeat the chapter titles which suggest the striking character of the book: The Problem Opened; Concerning our Critics; Who is the American?; Our Talent for Bragging; Some Other Peculiarities; American Sensitiveness; The Mother Country as Critic; Change of Tone in Foreign Criticism; Higher Criticism; Our French Visitors; Democracy and Manners; Our Monopoly of Wit; Our Greatest Critic; A Philosopher as Mediator: A Socialist Critic: Signs of Progress.

JOHN KEATS, a biography. By Albert Elmer Hancock. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Company. 1908. \$2 net.

All lovers of Keats must express their indebtedness to Mr. Hancock for this new life of the poet. Former biographies have pained those admirers of Keats who have felt that overemphasis upon his sensitiveness, his supposed lack of manliness, and his sensuousness have destroyed the truth of a character which was essentially manly. Mr. Hancock shows that Keats was no weakling and was indeed remarkably masculine, bearing more than the usual allotment of the ills of this life with courage and sweetness. Not the least interesting portion of the work is the tracing of the growth of the poet's philosophy of rat which in his case was synonymous with a philosophy of life,—the philosophy which finds its most perfect expression in the concluding lines of the "Ode to a Grecian Urn:"—"Beauty is truth, truth, beauty."

No lover of Keats will dispute the final judgment which the biographer passes upon the poet. Speculation as to what Keats might have been had he lived is he asserts entirely needless, inasmuch as the poet's philosophy, despite his extreme youth at the time of his death, received almost faultless expression in the best of his poems. From these we are able to judge the scope of his probable contribution to literature had he been granted more years. This scope could never have been that of a Shakespeare or a Goethe, for Keats had not the wide view of life of those poets. His forte lay in an intensely emotional expression of the feeling for beauty and in this expression he achieved excellences of poetic style which rank him with the greatest of English poets.

Mr. Hancock's biography is rather impressionistic in style and makes very interesting reading. One is grateful to the author for what he does not say. The rapidity of his style, indeed, compensates for greater fullness of comment, a fullness which the reader is perfectly confident the biographer was prepared to give had he deemed it necessary. The book is handsomely gotten out and is well illustrated with a number of exc llent pictures, the frontispiece being a photogravure of the original painting of Keats in Williams College made by Joseph Severn, the friend of the poet.

PARK-Street Papers. By Bliss Perry. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Company. 1908. Pp. 277. \$1.25.

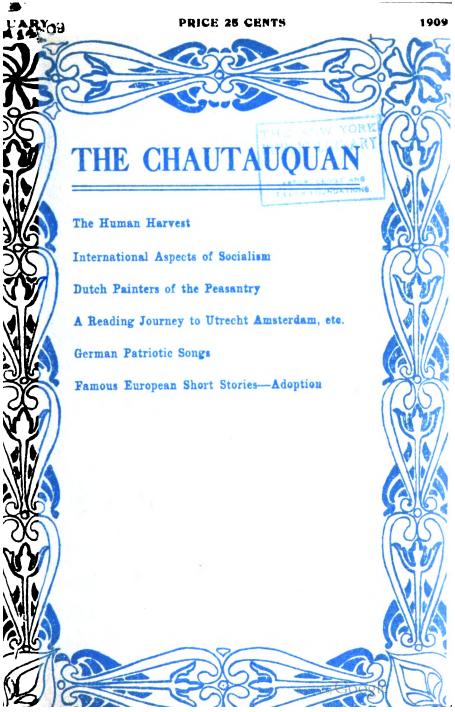
Mr. Perry's genial and meditative work has been made familiar within the last few years, not only through his books of recent publication, but through his printed work in the Atlantic Monthly. The ten papers in the present volume fall under two heads; five of them, under the general title of "Atlantic Prologues," are reprinted from the short addresses with which the January numbers of the magazine have been introduced; four are concerning eminent New England men of letters, about whom Mr. Perry's utterances have been made timely, either as Centenary Papers, or as commemorative of their deaths. The last, upon F. H. Underwood, "The Editor Who Was Never the Editor," has to do with the early history of the Atlantic. The book, as a whole, breathes the atmosphere of No. 4 Park Street, and has as distinct an Old New England flavor as has the graceful design on its title-page.

RACE QUESTIONS, PROVINCIALISM AND OTHER AMERICAN PROBLEMS.

By Josiah Royce. New York: The MacMillan Company. 1908.

Pp. 287. \$1.50.

Thoughtful people have come to acknowledge that any questions discussed by Professor Royce on philosophy and life are well worth their attention. The five essays in this book were all read before college or other educational organizations at some time between 1898 and the present year. They are carefully wrought and well balanced, while at the same time they are individual and progressive. Professor Royce's work is like his utterance and his literary style, undemonstrative, substantial, but personally attractive. The five essays are on the following topics: Race Questions and Prejudices; (2) Provincialism; (3) On Certain Limitations of the Thoughtful Public in America; (4) The Pacific Coast, A Psychological Study of the Relations of Climate and Civilization; (5) Some Relations of Physical Training to the present problem of Marake Education in America.



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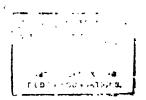
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Fishermen's Houses, low tide, Volendam. (See "A Reading Journey in the Hollow-Land," page 201.)

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

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No. 2.



E LECTIONS cannot satisfy everybody, and of the defeated party or parties all that is expected is philosophical acquiescence in the result. This year, however, furnishes an exception to the rule. The satisfaction with the outcome of the national election is all but universal. Mr. Bryan and his sincere, ardent followers, keenly disappointed at the returns, soon recovered their cheerfulness and declared that their cause, at any rate, had suffered no serious loss. The people, they felt, had elected Taft because they trusted him more and regarded him as a more cautious but essentially progressive statesman, not because they were weary of reform and warfare on evils and abuses. This relieved the Democratic defeat of its worst feature, its sting, and gave that party an important function and place in the political life of the nation. Even Republicans of the more partisan sort admit that a powerful and solid opposition party is indispensable in a representative government, a government of discussion, for it is by criticism, analysis, scrutiny of measures and policies that the public good is promoted and special privilege resisted. Mr. Bryan's personal view of the situation and the prospects of the Democratic party was expressed in a statement to the people from which we quote this paragraph:

"There must be a party representing the people's protest against wrong in high places, against corruption in politics and against the oppression of the struggling masses, and the Democratic party must continue its fight or dissolve. It could not exist as a plutocratic party. During the last twelve years the Democratic party has accomplished more out of power than the Republican party has accomplished in office, and this is a sufficient reward for those who

fight for a righteous cause. It would have been pleasant to have been able to reward worthy Democrats with official positions; they are looking for good government, and they labor unselfishly for the promotion of good government. They will neither be discouraged nor dismayed by defeat."

The thoughful Republicans deny, of course, that their party is, or is in danger of becoming, a reactionary party. They assure the people that the necessary reforms will be gradually realized without disturbance and excitement, and that popular confidence will be fully justified by their present leaders. The independent view of the outlook or the need of the hour is stated in a nutshell by the New York Journal of Commerce, as follows:

It is eminently desirable that the lines of the Republican party should be redrawn to conform more nearly to the convictions and desires of thinking people, and it is equally desirable that there should be a strong opposition party developed upon lines of principle and capable of becoming the dominant party without menace to established institutions or conservative policies.

The anti-Bryan wing of the Democratic party regards the recent defeat as one personal to the candidate. The party itself, it claims, is now in a sounder and more vigorous condition than it has been in since 1896. It has gained votes in the middle West and in the far West; it has elected governors in Ohio, Indiana, Nebraska, Minnesota, and North Dakota; it has captured the Nebraska legislature and gained a federal senator in the North; it has polled extraordinary votes in Illinois and Michigan and all but carried those states for the gubernatorial tickets. It is more harmonious and united than ever before in decades, and under other leadership it may confidently expect to prosper again. That the Democratic party is "dying" or doomed to extinction—an assertion made in some newspapers—is denied with emphasis by its ablest organs. Bryan, they say, has had his opportunity, and henceforth neither he nor his followers can insist on supremacy and control. The next candidate must be a man as acceptable to the business elements as Mr. Taft is or as Mr. Cleveland was, and such a man will be found among the successful state candidates of that party. Many "radicals" assent to the proposition

that no party and no candidate can win in the United States without the respect and support of at least a strong minority of the business men. This, indeed, is acknowledged to be the chief lesson of the late election.



Labor and the Minor Parties

It is easy to draw hasty and superficial inferences from the returns of the general election with reference to the minor parties and the new factors in our politics. But the thoughtful student attaches little importance to such inferences. It is said that the effort to "deliver the labor vote" to Mr. Bryan failed disastrously, though none of the leaders of the movement ever pretended that he could or promised that he would deliver the organized labor vote. No one knows, the factors being so numerous and confusing, what proportion of union and federated labor followed the advice of the executive committee of the American Federation of Labor to support the Democratic national ticket on the "injunction" issue. It is certain that hundreds of local unions and of local leaders earnestly supported this movement, and on the surface at any rate the opposition to it in labor circles was inconsiderable. But the Republicans won decisively in spite of this adverse influence, though perhaps the reduction of the popular plurality as compared with Mr. Roosevelt's four years ago was due to the labor vote. How unorganized labor voted is unknown and will remain a matter for conjecture.

But the best judges of the political-labor situation believe that we have seen the beginning of a "Labor party" in the United States. England and the Australian commonwealths have labor parties and labor groups in parliament, and Australia has had labor ministers and labor premiers. The interests of American workmen will sooner or later dictate the organization of an independent political party on the British model, of a party that will make temporary alliances with other parties but that will stand on its own platform. This, according to impartial and philosophical writers, will furnish cause for alarm or regret, as government is based on and requires proper representation of all great interests.

Of the existing minor parties none finds particular satisfaction in the returns. The Hearst or so-called Independent party polled a very small vote and neither helped Taft nor injured Bryan. The socialists expected to double their record-breaking vote of four years ago (over 400,-000), but they have not made any such gain, and while in some small cities they have increased their strength, in the great centers the election disappointed them. Their candidates for legislatures and city councils generally suffered defeat. The vigorous and spectacular campaign of Eugene Debs, the socialist candidate for the presidency, had not prepared his followers for such results as confronted them. The Prohibitionists did not poll their full vote, as many of their allies and sympathizers preferred to cast their ballots for one or the other of the leading candidates in order to influence directly the course of events. Whether third parties can prosper and steadily grow in this country is a question that is now discussed with much concern and intelligence.



Higher Education and the Color Line

In the case of the Berea College, which has attracted a good deal of attention, the federal Supreme Court, sustaining the decisions of the state courts of Kentucky, has held that the statute which required the college named to segregate its colored students and educate them in different buildings was not an unreasonable or oppressive law contrary to the constitutional guaranties of equal laws and equal civil rights. It has also held that the statute did not violate the original charter of the college, since a provision in that charter expressly reserves the right to amend or modify it, and an amendment by statute, though indirect, is within the intent and scope of that reservation.

Berea had received colored students on an equal foot-

ing with whites for several decades, though originally it was a white man's institution. At first there was dissatisfaction and protest, and some students left the college, but the opposition subsequently died out, and for many years whites and blacks mingled and received intellectual and moral training without friction or harm to anyone. The adoption of the segregation statute some years ago was a surprise to the college and its friends. But the law was upheld in the courts as a proper "police measure" and the same view is taken by the federal tribunal of last resort.

How far states may go under the "police power"—the power to protect life, property, and liberty, to maintain order and security—in ordering racial separation, remains an open question. In a vigorous dissenting opinion Justice Harlan regrets that this is so and would like to know whether laws demanding separate political meetings, separate courts, separate places of amusement would be constitutional, and he asks:

"Have we become so inoculated with prejudice of race that an American government, professedly based on the principles of freedom and charged with the protection of all citizens alike, can make distinctions between such c tizens in the matter of their voluntary association for innocent purposes simply because of their respective race?"

But the majority of the court did not believe that the facts in the Berea case justified sweeping dicta. The decision merely means that under the conditions in the mountain regions of Kentucky and neighboring states, the regions reached and helped by Berea College, segregation was a reasonable measure. The college authorities have decided to set apart a large amount for separate institutions for colored students, and in order to prevent rigid economy at the expense of the white students gifts are invited from generous and wealthy citizens who appreciate the excellent civilizing work in Berea within its particular sphere of influence.

The New Michigan Constitution

At the November election the voters of Michigan approved and accepted the new constitution that had been framed by a special convention. Though it is not as advanced as the "younger" and more radical elements would have liked it to be the new charter contains several notable features that are distinctly "modern." They mark, indeed, the political and civic progress of the state and of the nation.

The great movements and tendencies of the day are reflected in the following provisions, among others:

A substantial measure of home rule is conferred upon the cities and towns. The referendum is accepted and extended to new spheres. Municipal ownership of public utilities is permitted under certain safeguards, and capital for such enterprises may be obtained by the issue of special certificates outside of the constitutional debt limit. In Chicago municipal ownership has been impeded by a decision holding certificates for the acquisition of utilities producing revenue to be within the debt limit.

The demands of women receive some recognition. They are given the right to vote on bond and other financial proposals if they pay taxes in their own name.

Legislative fraud and trickery are aimed at by provisions of an unusual character—the prohibition of rules that are designed to destroy majority rule in the lawmaking bodies, and the provision that bills may be withdrawn from committees at any time by vote of the majority of the members. These safeguards are needed everywhere, for, as we have pointed out, pernicious practices of packing committees, strangling bills and reducing not only minorities, but majorities, to impotence, have grown up in Congress as well as in state legislatures. The tyranny of speakers and cliques that represent "interests" opposed to the public has often led to the cynical disregard of constitutional provisions, but Michigan has taken care to put additional obstacles in the way of obstructionists and jugglers with bills and amendments.

The Progress of the Divorce Evil

A special and elaborate report of the Census Bureau on marriage and divorce in the United States has been published, and it contains "much food for thought" and not a little ground for apprehension. The period covered is 1887-1906, and comparisons are made as to all the important phases of the question with a report of a similar nature dealing with the years 1867-1886. Some of the facts brought out are indeed startling.

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The divorces have been increasing in this country three times faster than population, in spite of our heavy immigration. Indeed, one marriage in twelve appears to end in some divorce court. No civilized country has anything like the same ratio of divorces to 100,000 population as some of our leading, settled, great and proud states. Divorce is two and one-half times as common today as it was forty years ago.

In some states the divorce rate is astonishing, in others the rate is comparatively low, while the absolute number of divorces granted for various causes is staggering. The following table, showing the comparative figures by divisions and states, should be carefully studied. We make no apology for reproducing it, as it has aroused and will continue to provoke much earnest discussion:

	Total divorces granted.		Divorce rate per 100,000 population.*	
State or	1887 to	1867 to		
Territory—	1906.	1886.	1900.	1880.
Continental United States	945,625	328,716	73	38
North Atlantic division	142,920	73,503	73 38	28
Maine	14,194	8,412	117	78
New Hampshire	8,617	4,979	112	78 85
Vermont	4,740	3,238	75	47
Massachusetts	22,940	9,853	47	30
Rhode Island	6,953	4,462	105	93
Connecticut	9,221	8,542	50	δĭ
New York	29,125	15,355	23	16
New Jersey	7,441	2,642	23	13
Pennsylvania		16,020	35	21

^{*} Based on the annual average of divorce for the five year period of which the census year is the medium year.

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South Atlantic division 58,603	16,357	33	13
			
Delaware 887	289	16	10
Maryland 7,920	2,185	40	12
District of Columbia 2,235	1,105	58	31
Virginia 12,129	2,635	38	II
West Virginia 10,308	2,555	Ğ4	25
North Carolina 7,047	1,338	24	8
South Carolina*	163		I
Georgia 10,401	3,959	26	14
Florida 7,586	2,128	<i>7</i> 9	53
North Central division434,476	162,830	<u>96</u>	55
Ohio 63,982	26,367	91	48
Indiana 60,721	25,193	142	70
Illinois 82,209	36,072	100	68
Michigan 42,371	18,433	104	72
Wisconsin 22,867	9,988	65	41
Minnesota 15,646	3,623	55	
Iowa 34,874	16,564	93	27 60
Missouri 54,766	15,278	103	• 40
North Dakota 4,317	297	88	46
South Dakota 7,103	790	95	48
Nebraska 16,711	3,034	82	43
Kansas 28,904	7,191	109	44
		-	
South Central division220.289	49,327	95	35
Kentucky 30,641	10,248	84	25
Tennessee 30,447	9,625	86	35 38
Alabama 22,807	5,204	66	27
Mississippi 19,993	5,040	74	30
Louisiana 9,785	1,697	41	10
Arkansas	6,041	136	53
Indian Territory 6,751		113	
Oklahoma 7,669		129	•••
Texas 62,655	11,472	131	49
Western division 89,337	26,699	129	39
36	9	-6-	
Montana 6,454	822	167	125
Idaho 3,205	368	120	58
Wyoming 1,772	40I	118	111
Colorado 15,844	3,687	158	138
New Mexico 2,437	255	73	12
Arizona 2,380	237	120	47
Utah 4,670	4,078	92	114
Nevada	1,128	111	106
Washington 16,215	9 96	184	75
Oregon 10,145	2,609	134 108	92 84
California 15,170	12,118	100	04

^{*}All laws permitting divorce were repealed.

The proper and just interpretation of these figures is a task for sociologists and scientific inquirers. The general situation is known to all, and it is also understood that changes in our population, in industrial life, education, position of women, ideas of marriage and family life, and a score of other factors, are responsible for the steady growth of the divorce evil-or the evil of "quick," ill-considered, fraudulent and collusive divorces. There are movements on foot for uniform and more conservative divorce laws. and the courts, by refusing to recognize certain divorces, have mitigated the evil of late to some extent. South Dakota has, at a referendum, approved a law requiring a year's residence, instead of one of six months, in case of an applicant for divorce coming from another state. In a word, the whole recent tendency has been toward improvement, restriction, strengthening the laws guarding the marriage tie and discouraging loose and dishonest divorces. The census report does not reveal the effects of these movements, but they are important and in time they are bound to yield substantial results.



"Personal Rule" vs. Constitutionalism

Amazing political developments have been witnessed in Germany. The whole nation, regardless of party, creed, interest, censuring the emperor; the reichstag openly discussing his conduct, in violation of a settled doctrine, and demanding certain guaranties for the future; the chancellor and head of the foreign office threatening resignation and tacitly approving the condemnation of his sovereign; the press speaking in no uncertain tone concerning the danger of arbitrary and personal rule in the sphere of foreign affairs; the emperor bowing his head during the storm and promising to be prudent and discreet, and, above all, mindful of constitutional responsibilities—surely such things are extraordinary for Germany.

But the spirit of the age is more powerful than monarchs and rulers, and while theoretically the German imperial cabinet is not "responsible" to parliament, the emperor alone having the right to appoint and dismiss ministers, practically it is becoming harder and harder to govern the people of the Teutonic empire without the support of a solid majority in the reichstag and the confidence and sympathy of the people. The chancellor and ministers have had in recent years to plead for support and promise important concessions in return to the leading groups in the popular branch of parliament, and this has been held to make for constitutionalism. It hardly needs saying that blunders and false steps on the part of the monarch and his appointees inevitably re-enforce the tendency.

The present excitement grew out of an alleged interview with Emperor William which appeared in a British newspaper. The essential correctness of the interview was not denied in the Berlin court circles, though minor inaccuracies were pointed out. In that interview the emperor expressed friendly sentiments for England and the English, but at the same time declared that he was in a minority. the majority of his people distrusting and disliking England. He also revealed diplomatic secrets that could not fail to offend France and Russia, once enemies of England but now excellent neighbors of hers. There was, moreover, a hint at the "yellow peril" in the Pacific, which was offensive to Japan, the ally of England. Finally, the Kaiser intimated that he had proved his good will to England during the war with the Boers by drawing up a plan of campaign in South Africa—a plan which was strikingly similar to that later worked out by General Roberts. As the emperor had sent his plan to Queen Victoria, the inference apparently suggested was that Roberts had profited by the Kaiser's suggestions.

Strangely enough, the German Foreign Office had authorized the publication of this interview, though Von Buelow, the chancellor, had not personally seen the proofs. Its appearance raised a storm of indignation and protest, and the emperor was declared to be as blamable as his ministers and diplomatic agents. His impulsiveness, his frank-

ness, his strong, unguarded expressions were seen to be dangerous to the peace of Europe and the prestige of Germany. The demand for prudence, self-restraint, the surrender of his "personal privileges" in the interest of national dignity naturally followed. The reichstag rejected a motion for an address to the emperor, but the agitation will doubtless bear fruit. There is no hope of an immediate change in the constitution limiting the emperor's power, or making the cabinet responsible to parliament, for the conservative and moderate groups are not prepared for such reforms. Still, public opinion has won a notable victory, and it is safe to say that in the future the representatives of the people will be treated with greater deference than in the past. Some time the reichstag may refuse to vote supplies and appropriations at the request of the imperfect constitutional government. Evolution, not revolution, is, however, the modern political watchword, and Germany will gradually develop a truly democratic form of government under the steady pressure of events and national interests.



Cuba's Third Election and Future

In November general elections were held in Cuba. The qualified voters of the island, under laws and machinery which insured a fair, orderly contest, elected a president, vice president, senators, and representatives. The American "government of intervention" had done everything to secure a genuine expression of popular will and to lay the foundations for a government representing a real majority.

The outcome of the election was not at all surprising. The conservative party led by General Menocal, a veteran of the revolution, proved rather weak, though at one period the conservative candidate was confident of victory. The liberals, long divided into two factions mutually hostile, had formed a temporary coalition and had put the rivals for the presidency, Gomez and Zayas, on the same ticket, the latter receiving the vice presidential nomination. The liberal majority was overwhelming, and it cannot be attributed

to force, fraud, or any other improper influence. Menocal and his party had the confidence of the wealthier elements, but the workers, the colored voters and other large sections of the population trusted the liberals.

However, there were no substantial differences between the platforms of the two parties. Both promised honest and economical administration, enforcement of law, earnest effort to maintain internal peace and order. Both stand for Cuban independence and prevention of conditions warranting another intervention. Will this pledge be carried out? Will the liberal government be equal to its responsibilities and the conservative party mindful of its duty to abide by the verdict of the majority at the polls? The leaders of the latter say that no rebellion or disorder will be attempted, and that the defeated will acquiesce in the result as good citizens fit for self-government and national existence. Whether they can control the rank and file, and whether the liberal government will give a good account itself, time alone will tell. Our troops and the government of intervention will retire this month, and Cuba's second experiment will then begin under rather favorable auspices. The island is more prosperous; the people have learned valuable political lessons; new laws and methods have been provided; bandits and other criminals have been deprived of arms and of liberty. Finally, the natives understand that another intervention would probably be permanent—that is, would mean annexation to the United States. It is not believed that many Cubans favor annexation at this time, and certainly the sugar and tobacco interests of this country would vigorously oppose it, since annexation would involve tree importation of the products of the island. Little plotting is expected, therefore, and if the natives are really jealous of and fit for independence they now have the opportunity to establish it on a firm basis.



America and Japan as Moral Allies

The traditional policy of the United States is opposed to any "entangling alliances" or formal agreements regard-

ing world politics with foreign powers. Even in recent years, since the annexation of the Philippines and the cooperation of the civilized nations in China in the interest
of "the open door" and the preservation of the territorial
integrity and independence of that empire, we have, as a
people, remained faithful to that policy. We have issued
"notes," proposed certain lines of action, but no alliances
or understandings of a binding character, either for offence or defence, have been entered into by our government.

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The agreement just negotiated with Japan may seem an exception or departure, but it is nothing of the kind, strictly speaking. The notes signed by the representatives of the two governments are "declarations of policy" in the Far East and in the Pacific, but they commit neither power to any special or novel course of action. Principles that have been accepted and effective for some years are reaffirmed explicitly and formally, for the information of the world and the better guidance of statesmen, but no change is intended in the actual situation.

The United States and Japan have agreed to—Respect each other's possessions in the Pacific.

Support the principles of Chinese independence and sovereignty, as well as the "open door," or the right to trade on equal terms in the markets of the Far East.

Maintain the status quo or existing balance in that part of the world, etc.

Communicate with each other and consult as to measures to be taken, in emergencies, in defence of the principles just named.

This moral agreement or reciprocal declaration of policy is the logical sequel to the other Pacific "understandings" or treaties, though their form is different. It is another safeguard and pledge of peace and stability in the Far East. It removes apprehension of friction with Japan and deprives many sensation-mongers of their occupation. Japan demonstrates her non-aggressive intentions toward the United States, and the talk of possible war over immi-

gration, Japanese coolie exclusion, local agitation against lapanese laborers, is rendered ridiculous. This is the best feature of the agreement from the standpoint of our domestic politics. As to foreign relations, the powers, without exception, welcome the agreement as an additional guaranty of the status quo. The interests of none are threatened or adversely affected by it. As for illegitimate ambitions in trade or territorial expansion at the expense of China or of Japan, no power could dare to avow them . or to complain that they have been dashed by the agreement. As a matter of fact, all the governments of influence had been consulted or informed in advance, and all had expressed their approval of the proposed step. China, entering upon a new epoch, with new rulers, has special reason to welcome the agreement.



Note and Comment

On October 22 the German people celebrated the fiftieth birth day of the Empress. She is a few months older than the Kaiser.

The new German Ambassador to the United States, Count Johann Bernstorff, succeeding the late Baron Speck von Sternberg. will be of interest to Americans in part by reason of his wife, who was formerly a Miss Luckemeyer of New York City.

Count Johann Heinrich von Bernstorff began his diplomatic career in 1889, when he was made attaché at Constantinople. From Turkey he was transferred to the German Foreign Office, after which he advanced from one grade o another, serving as a representative in many of the great capitals of Europe.

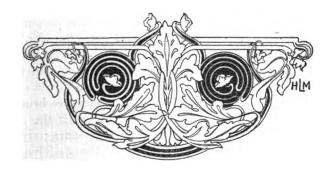
He was counsellor of the German Embassy and First Secretary in London six years ago. The Count's work in creating good feeling between Great Britain and Germany brought him for the first time under the notice of the Emperor, and after four years' service in a minor position in London he was transferred to Cairo as Ambassador. This position is regarded in the German Diplomatic Service as a stepping stone to one of the greater ambassa-dorial portfolios, and his present appointment therefore did not cause much surprise in Berlin.

The Count met his wife, then Miss Jeanne Luckemeyer, in 1887, while she was traveling on the Continent. The Countess was born in 1867. They have two children, a daughter, Alexandria, 20 years old, and a son, who is 17. The Ambassador is said to be tall and of slender build, with a very youthful appearance for his 46 years. He impresses one as being a diplomat, energetic, resourceful. He speaks very good English, which he learned as a boy when attending the schools in London.

An exhibition of pictures representative of modern German art will be shown at the Metropolitan Museum of Art, beginning January I. It is composed of 150 paintings and 50 drawings selected from the museums of Germany by an imperial commission, and includes the best examples of Kaulbach, Lenbach, Liebermann, Thoma, and Rudolph von Hoffmann.

The University of Helsingfors is arranging for an exchange of professors with American universities after the plan found so successful for German and American universities.

The World To-Day for December contains an interesting article upon "German Student Duelling," well illustrated from photographs. Another article in the same magazine which will be of interest to Chautauquan readers is that entitled "The United States as a Peace Power," by Professor Amos S. Hershey of Indiana State University.





The Human Harvest

By David Starr Jordan President of Leland Stanford University.

CIENCE is wisdom set in order. It is known as science by its orderly arrangement, but above and beyond all matters of arrangement the wisdom itself must take rank. Wisdom is the essence of human experience, the contact of mind with the order of nature. Of all men of his time, Benjamin Franklin was preëminently a man of wisdom. By the same token the first leader in science in America, he still takes rank with the greatest.

So in this time of historic recognition, it is proper that a speaker of today should find his message in the words of Benjamin Franklin, and the message I choose is one for which this City of Philadelphia has always stood and from which it has taken its Greek name, the name which in classical phrase says with a single word that men are brothers worthy of our love. It is a message for which the State of Pennsylvania has always stood, for the same principle was embodied in the life of William Penn. always been a Quaker City, and the Quakers, the Friends, have been our best apostles of the gospel of "peace on earth, good will towards men," the culmination of social and political wisdom.

Benjamin Franklin once said, "All war is bad; some wars worse than others." Then, once again, in more explicit terms referring to the dark shadow of war cast over

in the September CHAUTAUQUAN, will continue throughout the

reading year.

^{*}An address delivered in Philadelphia April 18, 1906. Reprinted by courtesy of the Author from the Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society.

The series entitled "The Friendship of Nations," which began

scenes of peace, the evil of the standing army, Franklin said to Baynes:

"If one power singly were to reduce its standing army it would be instantly overrun by other nations. Yet I think there is one effect of a standing army which must in time be felt so as to bring about the abolition of the system. A standing army not only diminishes the population of a country, but even the size and breed of the human species. For an army is the flower of the nation. All the most vigorous, stout, and well-made men in a kingdom are to be found in the army, and these men in general cannot marry."

What is true of standing armies is far more true of armies that fight and fall; for as Franklin said again, "Wars are not paid for in war times: the bill comes later."

In the discussion of the principles involved in Franklin's words, I must lay before you four fragments of history, three stories told because they are true, and one parable not true, but told for the lesson it teaches. And this is the first: Once there was a man strong, wealthy and patient, who dreamed of a finer type of horse than had ever yet existed. This horse should be handsome, clean-limbed, intelligent, docile, strong, and swift. These traits were to be not those of one horse alone, but of a number of favored equine aristocracy; they were to be "bred in the bone" so that they could continue from generation to generation, the attributes of a special common type of horse. And with this dream ever before his waking eyes, he invoked for his aid, the four twin genii of organic life, the four by which all the magic of transformation of species has been accomplished either in nature or in art. And these forces once in his service, he left to their control all the plans included in his great ambition. These four genii or fates are not strangers to us, nor were they new to the human race. Being so great and so strong, they are invisible to all save those who Men who deal with them after the fashion of science give them commonplace names, variation, heredity, segregation, selection.

Because not all horses are alike. because in fact no

two were ever quite the same, the first appeal was made to th genius of Variation. Looking over the world of horses, he found to his hand Kentucky race horses, cleanlimbed, handsome and fleet, some more so and others less. So those which had the most of the virtues of the horse which was to be were chosen to be blended in new creation. Then again, he found thoroughbred horses of Arabian stock, hardy and strong and intelligent. These virtues were needed in the production of the perfect horse. And here came the need of the second genius, who is called Heredity. With the crossing of the racer with the thoroughbred, all qualities of both were blended in the progeny. The next generation partook of all desirable traits and again of undesirable ones as well. Some the one, and some the other, for sire and dam alike had given the stamp of its own kind and for the most part in equal degree. But again never in a degree quite equal, and in some measure these matters varied with each sire and each dam, and with each colt of all their progeny. It was found that the progeny of the mare called Beautiful Bells excelled all others in retaining all that was good in fine horses, and in rejecting all that a noble horse should not have. And like virtues were attached to the sires called Palo Alto, Electricity, and Electioneer.

But there were horses and horses; horses not of the chosen breed, and should these enter the fold with their common blood it would endanger all that had been already accomplished. For the ideal horse mating with the common horse controls at the best but half the traits of the progeny. If the strain were to be established, the vulgar horse flesh must be kept away, and only the best remain in association with the best. Thus Segregation, the third of the genii was called into service lest the successes of this herd be lost in the failure of some other.

Under the spell of Heredity all the horses partook of the charm of Beautiful Bells and of Electricity and of Palo Alto, for firmly and persistently all others were banished from their presence. There were some who were not strong, some who were not sleek, some who were not fleet, some who were not clean-limbed, nor docile, nor intelligent. At least, they were not so to the degree which the dream of fair horses demanded. By the force of Selection, all such were sent away. Variation was always at work making one colt unlike another; Heredity made each colt a blend or mosaic of traits of sire and of grandsires and granddams; Selection left only good traits to form this mosaic, and the grandsire and granddam, sire and dam, and the rest of the ancestry lived their lives again in the expanding circle of descent.

Thus in the final result, the horses who were left were the horses of their owner's dream. The future of the breed was fixed, and fixed at the beginning by the very framing of the conditions under which it lived. It is variation which gives better as well as worse. It is heredity which saves all that has been attained—for better or for worse. It is selection by which better triumphs over worse, and it is segregation which protects the final result from falling again into the grasp of the general average. In all this, selection is the vital moving changing force. It throws the shaping of the future on the individual chosen by the present. The horse who is left marks the future of his kind. The history of the steed is an elongation of the history of those who are chosen for parentage. And with the best of the best chosen for parentage, the best of the best appears in the progeny. The horse-harvest is good in each generation. As the seed we sow, so shall we reap.

And this story is true, known to thousands of men. And it will be true again just as often as men may try to carry it into experiment. And it will be true not of horses alone, for the four fates which guide and guard life have no partiality for horses but work just as persistently for cattle or sheep, or plums or roses, or calla or cactus, as they do for horses or for men. From the very beginning of life they have wrought untiringly—and in your life and in mine—in the grass of the field, the trees of the forest—in bird and beast, everywhere we find the traces of their energy.

And this brings me to my second story, which is not true, as history, but only in its way as parable.

There was once a man-strenuous no doubt, but not wise, for he did not give heed to the real nature of things and so he set himself to do by his own unaided hand the work which only the genii can accomplish. And this man possessed also a stud of horses. They were docile, cleanlimbed, fleet, and strong and he would make them still more strong and swift. So he rode them swiftly with all his might—day and night, always on the course, always pushed to the utmost, leaving only the dull and sluggish to remain in the stalls. For it was his dream to fill these horses with the spirit of action, with the glory of swift motion, that this glory might be carried on and on to the last generation of horses. There were some who could not keep the pace, and to these and these alone he assigned the burden of bearing colts. And the feeble and the broken, the dull of wit, the coarse of limb, became each year the mothers of the colts. The horses who were chosen for the race-course he trained with every care, and every stroke of discipline showed itself in the flashing eyes and straining muscles, such were the best horses. But the other horses were the horses who were left. From their loins came the next generation and with these there was less fire and less speed than the first horses possessed in such large measure. But still the rush went on -whip and spur made good the lack of native movement. The racers still pushed on the course, while in the stalls and paddocks at home, the dull and common horses bore their dull and common colts. Variation was still at work with these as patiently as ever. Heredity followed, repeating faithfully whatever was left to her. Segregation, always conservative, guarded her own, but could not make good the deficiencies. Selection, forced to act perversely, chose for the future the worst and not the best, as was her usual fashion. So the current of life ran steadily downward. The herd was degenerating because it was each year an inferior herd which bred. Each generation vielded weaker colts, rougher, duller, clumsier colts, and no amount of

training or lash or whip or spur made any permanent difference for the better. The horse-harvest was bad. Thoroughbred and racehorse gave place to common beasts, for in the removal of the noble the ignoble always finds its opportunity. It is always the horse that remains which determines the future of the stud.

In like fashion from the man who is left flows the current of human history.

This tale then is a parable, a story of what never was, but which is always trying to become true

Once there was a great king—and the nation over which he bore rule lay on the flanks of a mountain range, spreading across fair hills and valleys green and fertile across to the Mediterranean Sea. And the men of his race, fair and strong, self-reliant and self-confident, men of courage and men of action, were men "who knew no want they could not fill for themselves." They knew none on whom they looked down, and none to whom they regarded themselves inferior. And for all things which men could accomplish, these plowmen of the Tiber and the Apennines felt themselves fully competent and adequate. "Vir," they called themselves in their own tongue, and virile, virilis, men like them are called to this day. It was the weakling and the slave who was crowded to the wall; the man of courage begat descendants. In each generation and from generation to generation the human harvest was good. And the great wise king who ruled them; but here my story halts-for there was no king. There could be none. For it was written, men fit to be called men, men who are Vires, "are too self-willed, too independent, and too self-centered to be ruled by anybody but themselves." Kings are for weaklings, not for men. Men free-born control their own destinies. "The fault is not in our stars, but in ourselves that we are underlings." For it was later said of these same days: "There was a Brutus once, who would have brooked the Eternal Devil to take his seat in Rome as easily as a king." And so there was no king to cherish and control these men, his subjects. The spirit of freedom was the

only ruler they knew, and this spirit being herself metaphoric called to her aid the four great genii which create and recreate nations. Variation was ever at work, while heredity held fast all that she developed. Segregation in her mountain fastness held the world away, and selection chose the best and for the best purposes, casting aside the weakling, and the slave, holding the man for the man's work, and even the man's work was at home, building cities, subduing the forests, draining the marshes, adjusting the customs and statutes, preparing for the new generations. So the men begat sons of men after their own fashion, and the men of strength and courage were ever dominant. The Spirit of Freedom is a wise master, cares wisely for all that he controls.

So in the early days, when Romans were men, when Rome was small, without glory, without riches, without colonies and without slaves, these were the days of Roman greatness.

Then the Spirit of Freedom little by little gave way to the Spirit of Domination. Conscious of power, men sought to exercise it, not on themselves but on one another. Little by little, this meant banding together, aggression, suppression, plunder, struggle, glory, and all that goes with the pomp and circumstance of war. The individuality of men was lost in the aggrandizement of the few. Independence was swallowed up in ambition, patriotism come to have a new meaning. It was transferred from the hearth and home to the trail of the army.

It does not matter to us now what were the details of the subsequent history of Rome. We have now to consider only a single factor. In science, this factor is known as "reversal of selection." "Send forth the best ye breed!" That was the word of the Roman war-call. And the spirit of Domination took these words literally, and the best were sent forth. In the conquests of Rome, Vir, the real man, went forth to battle and to the work of foreign invasion, Homo, the human being, remained in the farm and the

workshop and begat the new generations. Thus "Vir gave place to Homo." The sons of real men gave place to the sons of scullions, stable-boys, slaves, camp-followers, and the riff-raff of those the great victorious army does not want.

The fall of Rome was not due to luxury, effeminacy, corruption, the wickedness of Nero and Caligula, the weakness of the train of Constantine's worthless descendants. It was fixed at Philippi, when the spirit of domination was victorious over the spirit of freedom. It was fixed still earlier, in the rise of consuls and triumvirates and the fall of the simple sturdy self-sufficient race who would brook no arbitrary ruler. When the real men fell in war, or were left in faraway colonies, the life of Rome still went on. But it was a different type of Roman which continued it, and this new type repeated in Roman history its weakling parentage.

"It is puerile," says Charles Ferguson, "to suppose that kingdoms are made by kings. The kings could do nothing if the mob did not throw up its cap when the king rides by. The king is consented to by the mob, because of that in him which is mob-like. The mob loves glory and prizes, so does the king. If he loved beauty and justice, the mob would shout for him while the fine words were sounding in the air, but he could never celebrate a jubilee or establish a dynasty. When the crowd gets ready to demand justice and beauty, it becomes a democracy and has done with kings."

Thus we read in Roman history the rise of the mob and of the emperor who is the mob's exponent. It is not the presence of the emperor which makes imperialism. It is the absence of the people, the want of men. Babies in their day have been emperors. A wooden image would serve the same purpose. More than once it has served it. The decline of a people can have but one cause, the decline in the type from which it draws its sires. A herd of cattle can degenerate in no other way than this, and a race of men is under the same laws. By the rise in absolute power, as a sort of historical barometer, we may mark the decline in the breed of the people. We see this in the history of Rome.

The conditional power of Julius Cæsar, resting on his own tremendous personality, showed that the days were past of Cincinnatus and of Junius Brutus. The power of Augustus showed the same. But the decline went on. It is written that "the little finger of Constantine was thicker than the loins of Augustus." The emperor in the time of Claudius the Caligula was not the strong man who held in check all lesser men and organizations. He was the creature of the mob, and the mob, intoxicated with its own work, worshipped him as divine. Doubtless the last emperor, Augus tulus Romulus, before he was thrown into the scrap-heap of history, was regarded in the mob's eyes and his own as the most godlike of them all:

What have the historians to say of these matters? Very few have grasped the full significance of their own words, for very few have lookd on men as organisms, and on nations as dependent on the specific character of the organisms destined for their reproduction.

So far as I know, Benjamin Franklin was the first to think of man thus as an inhabitant, a species in nature among other species and dependent on nature's forces as other animals and other inhabitants must be.

In Otto Seeck's great history of "The Downfall of the Ancient World" (Der Untergang der Antiken Welt), he finds this downfall due solely to the rooting out of the best ("Die Ausrottung der Besten"). The historian of the "Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire" or any other empire is engaged solely with the details of the process by which the best men are exterminated. Speaking of Greece, Dr. Seech says, "A wealth of force of spirit went down in the suicidal wars." "In Rome, Marius and Cinna slew the aristocrats by hundreds and thousands. Sulla destroyed the democrats. and not less thoroughly. Whatever of strong blood survived, fell as an offering to the proscription of the Triumvirate." "The Romans had less of spontaneous force to lose than the Greeks. Thus desolation came to them sooner. Whoever was bold enough to rise politically in Rome was almost without exception thrown to the ground. Only cowards remained and from their brood came forward the new generations. Cowardice showed itself in lack of originality and in slavish following of masters and traditions."

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The Romans of the Republic could not have made the history of the Roman Empire. In their hands it would have been still a republic. Could they have held aloof from world-conquering schemes, Rome might have remained a republic, enduring even to our own day. The seeds of destruction lie not in the race nor in the form of government, but in the influences by which the best men are cut off from the work of parenthood.

"The Roman Empire," says Seeley, "perished for want of men." The dire scarcity of men is noted even by Julius Cæsar. And at the same time it is noted that there are men enough. Rome was filling up like an overflowing marsh. Men of a certain type were plenty, "people with guano in their composition," to use Emerson's striking phrase, but the self-reliant farmers, the hardy dwellers on the flanks of the Apennines, the Roman men of the early Roman days, these were fast going, and with the change in the breed came the change in Roman history.

"The mainspring of the Roman army for centuries had been the patient strength and courage, capacity for enduring hardships, instinctive submission to military discipline of the population that lined the Apennines."

With the Antonines came "a period of sterility and barrenness in human beings." "The human harvest was bad." Bounties were offered for marriage. Penalties were devised against race suicide. "Marriage," says Metellus, "is a duty which, however painful, every citizen ought manfully to discharge." Wars were conducted in the face of a declining birth rate, and this decline in quality and quantity of the human harvest engaged very early the attention of the wise men of Rome.

Thus "Vir gave place to Homo," real men to mere human beings. There were always men enough such as they were. "A hencoop will be filled, whatever the (original) number of hens," said Benjamin Franklin. And thus the

mob filled Rome. No wonder the mob-leader, the mobhero rose in relative importance. No wonder "the little finger of Constantine was thicker than the loins of Augustus." No wonder that "if Tiberius chastised his subjects with whips, Valentinian chastised them with scorpions."

Government having assumed godhead took at the same time the appurtenances of it. Officials multiplied. Subject lost their rights. "Abject fear paralyzed the people and those that ruled were intoxicated with insolence and cruelty." "The worst government is that which is most worshipped as divine." "The emperor possessed in the army an overwhelming force over which citizens had no influence, which was totally deaf to reason or eloquence, which had no patriotism because it had no country, which had no humanity because it had no domestic ties." "There runs through Roman literature a brigand's and barbarian's contempt for honest industry." "Roman civilization was not a creative kind, it was military, that is destructive." What was the end of it all? The nation bred real men no more. To cultivate the Roman fields "whole tribes were borrowed." The man of the quick eye and the strong arm, gave place to the slave, the scullion, the pariah, the man with the hoe, the man whose lot does not change because in him there lies no power to change it. "Slaves have wrongs, but freemen alone have rights." So at the end the Roman world yielded to the barbaric, because it was weaker in force. "The barbarians settled and peopled the empire rather than conquered it." And the process is recorded in history as the fall of Rome.

"Out of every hundred thousand strong men, eighty thousand were slain. Out of every hundred thousand weak-lings, ninety to ninety-five thousand were left to survive." This is Dr. Seeck's calculation, and the biographical significance of such mathematics must be evident at once. Dr. Seeck speaks with scorn of the idea that Rome fell from the decay of old age, from the corruption of luxury, from neglect of military tactics or from the over-diffusion of culture.

"It is inconceivable that the mass of Romans suffered from over-culture." "In condemning the sinful luxury of wealthy Romans, we forget that the trade-lords of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries were scarcely inferior in this regard to Lucullus and Apicius, their waste and luxury not constituting the slightest check to the advance of the nations to which these men belonged. The people who lived in luxury in Rome were scattered more thinly than in any modern state of Europe. The masses lived at all times more poorly and frugally because they could do nothing else. Can we conceive that a war force of untold millions of people is rendered effeminate by the luxury of a few hundreds?"

Does history ever repeat itself? It always does if it is true history. If it does not we are dealing not with history but with mere succession of incidents. Like causes produce like effects, just as often as man may choose to test them. Whenever men use a nation for the test, poor seed yields a poor fruition. Where the weakling and the coward survives in human history, there "the human harvest is bad," and it can never be otherwise.

The finest Roman province, a leader in the Roman world was her colony of Hispania. What of Spain in history? What of Spain today? "This is Castile," said a Spanish writer, "she makes men and wastes them." "This sublime and terrible phrase," says another writer, "sums up Spanish history."

Another of the noblest of Roman provinces was Gallia, the favored land, in which the best of the Romans, the Franks and the Northmen have mingled their blood to produce a nation of men, hopefully leaders in the arts of peace, fatally leaders also in the arts of war.

Today we are told by Frenchmen that France is a decadent nation. This is a confession of judgment, not an accusation of hostile rivals. It does not mean that the slums of Paris are destructive of human life. That we know elsewhere. Each great city has its great burdens, and these fall hard on those at the bottom of the layers of society. There is degradation in all great cities, but the great cities

are not the whole of France. It is claimed that the decadence is steadily falling, that the average stature of men is lower by two inches at least than it was a century ago. that the physical force is less among the peasants at their homes. Legoyt tells us that "it will take long periods of peace and plenty before France can recover the tall statures mowed down in the wars of the republic and the first empire." What is the cause of all this? Intemperance, vice, misdirected education, bureaucracy and the rush toward ready made careers? These may be symptoms. They are not causes. Demolins asks in that clever volume of his: "In what constitutes the superiority of the Anglo-Saxon?" Before we answer this, let us inquire in what constitutes the inferiority of the Latin races? If we admit this inferiority exists in any degree, and if we answer it in any degree, we find in the background the causes of the fall of Greece, the fall of Rome, the fall of Spain. We find the spirit of domination, the spirit of glory, the spirit of war, the final survival of subserviency, of cowardice and of sterility. The man who is left holds in his grasp the history of the future. The evolution of a race is always selective, never collective. Collective evolution among men or beasts, the movement upward or downward of the whole as a whole, irrespective of training or selection does not exist. As Lepouge has said, "It exists in rhetoric, not in truth nor in history."

The survival of the fittest in the struggle for existence is the primal moving cause of race progress and of race changes. In the red stress of human history, the natural process of selection is sometimes reversed. A reversal of selection is the beginning of degradation. It is degradation itself. Can we see the fall of Rome in the downfall of France? Let us look again at the history. A single short part of it will be enough. It will give us the cue to the rest.

In the Wiertz gallery in Brussels is a wonderful painting, dating from the time of Waterloo, called Napoleon in Hell. It represents the great marshal with folded arms and face unmoved descending slowly to the land of the shades.

Before him, filling all the background of the picture with every expression of countenance are the men sent before him by the unbridled ambition of Napoleon. Three millions and seventy thousand there were in all-so history tells us, more than half of them Frenchmen. They are not all shown in one picture. They are only hinted at. And behind the millions shown or hinted at are the millions on millions of men who might have been and are not—the huge widening human wedge of the possible descendants of the men who fell in battle. These men of Napoleon's armies were the youth without blemish, "the best that the nation could bring," chosen as "food for powder," "ere evening to be trampled like the grass," in the rush of Napoleon's great battles. These men came from the plow, from the workshop, from the school, the best there were—those from eighteen to thirty-five years of age at first, but afterwards the older and the younger." "A boy will stop a bullet as well as a man;" this maxim is accredited to Napoleon. "The more vigorous and well born a young man is," says Novicow, "the more normally constituted, the greater his chance to be slain by musket or magazine, the rifled cannon, and other similar engines of civilization." Among those destroyed by Napoleon were "the élite of Europe." "Napoleon," says Otto Seeck, "in a series of years seized all the youth of high stature and left them scattered over many battle fields, so that the French people who followed them are mostly men of smaller stature. More than once in France since Napoleon's time has the military limit been lowered."

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The spirit of freedom gave way to the spirit of domination. The path of glory is one which descends easily. Campaign followed campaign, against enemies, against neutrals, against friends. The trail of glory crossed the Alps to Italy and to Egypt, crossed Switzerland to Austria, crossed Germany to Russia. Conscription followed victory and victory and conscription debased the human species. "The human harvest was bad." The first consul became the emperor. The servant of the people became the founder of the dy-

nasty. Again conscription after conscription. "Let them die with arms in their hands. Their death is glorious, and it will be avenged. You can always fill the places of soldiers." These were Napoleon's words when Dupont surrendered his army in Spain to save the lives of a doomed battalion.

More conscription. After the battle of Wagram, we are told, the French began to feel their weakness, the Grand Army was not the army which fought at Ulm and Jena. Raw conscripts raised before their time and hurriedly drafted into the line had impaired its steadiness."

On to Moscow,* "amidst ever-deepening misery they struggled on, until of the 600,000 men who had proudly crossed the Niemen for the conquest of Russia, only 20,000 famished, frost-bitten, unarmed spectres staggered across the bridge of Korno in the middle of December."

"Despite the loss of the most splendid army marshalled by man, Napoleon abated no whit of his resolve to dominate Germany and discipline Russia. " . . . He strained every effort to call the youth of the empire to arms. and 350,000 conscripts were promised by the Senate. The mighty swirl of the Moscow campaign sucked in 150,000 lads under twenty years of age into the devouring vortex." "The peasantry gave up their sons as food for cannon." But "many were appalled at the frightful drain on the nation's strength." In less than half a year, after the loss of half a million men a new army nearly as numerous was marshalled under the imperial eagles. But the majority were young, untrained troops, and it was remarked that the conscripts born in the year of Terror had not the stamina of the earlier levies. Brave they were, superbly brave, and the emperor sought by every means to breathe into them his indomitable spirit." "Truly the emperor could make boys heroes, but he could never repair the losses of 1812." "Soldiers were wanting, youths were dragged forth." The human harvest was at its very worst.

*These quotations are from the "History of Napoleon I," by J. H. Rose.

And the sequel of it all is the decadence of France. In the presence of war—of war on such a mightly ruthless and ruinous scale—one does not have to look far to find in what constitutes the superiority of the Anglo-Saxon. And we see the truth in Franklin's words, the deeper truth of their deeper wisdom: "Men do not pay for war in war time; the bill comes later."

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Another wise man, Ralph Waldo Emerson, has used these words: "Man has but one future, and that is predetermined in his lobes." "All the privilege and all the legislation in the world cannot meddle or help. How shall a man escape from his ancestors or draw off from his veins the black drop?"

It is related that Guizot once asked this question of James Russell Lowell, "How long will the republic endure?" "So long as the ideas of its founders remain dominant," was the answer. But again we have this question: "How long will the ideas of its founders remain dominant?" Just so . long as the blood of the founders remains dominant in the blood of its people. Not necessarily the blood of the Puritans and the Virginians alone, the original creators of the land of free states. We must not read our history so narrowly as that. It is the blood of free-born men, be they Roman, Frank, Saxon, Norman, Dane, Goth or Samurai. It is a free stock which creates a free nation. Our republic shall endure so long as the human harvest is good, so long as the movement of history, the progress of peace and industry leaves for the future not the worst but the best of each generation. The Republic of Rome lasted so long as there were Romans, the Republic of America will last so long as its people, in blood and in spirit, remain what we have learned to call Americans.

By the law of probabilities as developed by Quetelet, there will appear in each generation the same number of potential poets, artists, investigators, patriots, athletes and superior men of each degree.

But this law involves the theory of continuity of paternity, that in each generation a percentage practically

equal of men of superior force or superior mentality should survive to take the responsibilities of parenthood. Otherwise Quetelet's law becomes subject to the operation of another law, the operation of reversed selection, or the biological "law of diminishing returns." In other words, breeding from an inferior stock is the sole agency in race degeneration, as selection natural or artificial along one line or another is the sole agency in race progress.

And all laws of probabilities and of averages are subject to a still higher law, the primal law of biology, which no cross-current of life can overrule or modify: Like the seed is the harvest.

International Aspects of Socialism

By A. M. Simons.

THE Socialist movement is a working-class movement. It arises out of the struggle between employers and employes, over the division of the product of labor. It is concerned with whatever affects the welfare of the working class. It deals with such problems as hours of labor, wages, strikes, boycotts, trusts, child labor, and the ownership of property. These problems all arise, and in much the same form in all countries whose industrial life is based upon private ownership of capital and the resulting wage system.

In all countries the interests of laborers in relation to these questions are practically identical. It is therefore inevitable that a labor movement should be international.

The workers in all countries desire a larger product and better conditions of living and working. The interests of the owning class, on the other hand are competitive, conflicting. Capitalists desire new and larger markets and all of them desire all the markets. The pursuit of their interests leads naturally to international jealousies and wars. Indeed the Socialists claim that nearly all modern wars have resulted directly from commercial conflicts.

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Whatever may be true of internal questions it is certain that in the last analysis all great international questions tend to revert to the stern arbitrament of "blood and iron." For this reason great standing armies and ever-growing navies are maintained. But it is from the ranks of laborers that the soldiers must come. It is from the wealth produced by labor that the billions of dollars expended upon modern militarism must be taken. Whenever the Socialists ask for funds for old-age pensions, for the care of the sick, the injured and the widows and orphans, for the unemployed, or any of the social reforms for which they stand, they are always met with the excuse of "no funds." At the same time they see an ever-growing flood of dollars poured into the military budget. When war actually comes, it is from the ranks of the workers that the "cannon fodder" must be drawn, while the benefits of victory are reaped by those who take no part in the fighting. It has been said many times that wars will cease when rulers are compelled to do the fighting. The Socialists propose to end war by insisting that those who are not interested in war shall not bear its burdens.

Socialists maintain that governments at the present time are used largely to maintain and defend the interests of private property. While they hold this position they are not apt to be carried away by any jingoist form of patriotism, but are apt to look with hostility upon any proposition leading to war in defense of such interests.

Socialists are therefore very much alive to the solidarity of labor throughout the world. They realize that such a tremendous change as is involved in the victory of the working-class and the transformation of private capital to collective ownership could not well be brought about in one nation while the remainder of the world remained hostile. All the principles of Socialism, therefore, lead inevitably to international action.

This fact has been reflected in the organization of the Socialist movement from the very beginning. The very first organized expression of modern socialism was the Interna-

tional Workingmen's Association, founded in London in 1864. It quickly extended to nearly every important country. It was to a considerable degree under the direct personal influence of Karl Marx and Frederick Engels. Its main l. storical purpose was to sive a uniform philosophical foundation to the working-class movement of all countries. When this work was accomplished, its founders recognized that the movements in the various countries would develop much better if given greater national autonomy. At their suggestion the headquarters were moved to the United States with the deliberate intention of bringing about the dissolution of the Association, which took place in 1876. Incidentally, it may be remarked, this is almost the only instance of a powerful organization being dissolved by its founders because its work was finished.

Before the dissolution of the "Old International," as this early body is commonly and fondly called by Socialists, it had succeeded in firmly implanting the seeds of Socialism in all important European countries. Twelve years after the dissolution of this first organization the various rational organizations 'ad grown so strong 'hat they began to feel the need of closer international relations. The "Old International" had organized the various national movements; the "New International" was to be but a means of co-operation between the various national organizations.

The first important step in the creation of new international relations was the calling of the International Socialist Congress at Paris in 1889. Since that date these gatherings have been held at fairly regular intervals,—at Brussels in 1891, Zurich 1893, London 1896, Paris 1900, Amsterdam 1904, Stuttgart 1907, and the next will be held at Copenhagen in 1910. These congresses have grown steadily in size and importance. At Stuttgart there were a thousand delegates representing practically every civilized country. All European nations sent delegates, and there were representatives from the United States, Canada, Australia, South 'Africa, Japan, and India.

For one week this great gathering discussed questions of international policy. There were four subjects upon the general program: 1. The proper relations of the economic and political wings of the labor movement, that is, the Socialist parties and the trade unions. 2. Militarism. Woman suffrage. 4. Emigration and immigration. though the discussions were warm and press dispatches published in the United States told of impending splits, every proposition but one was settled by a unanimous vote, and on that one the opposition was insignificant in numbers, and confined to a minor point. The whole congress was a most striking reply to the criticism often offered by ignorant opponents, that there are as many different kinds of socialism as there are Socialists. It proved once more that, as a matter of fact, the world has never known such a multitude of individuals drawn from widely divergent races and nations that show such a harmony of thought.

The Second Paris Congress in 1900 recognized the need of still closer international affiliations. A permanent International Socialist Bureau and Secretariat was established. The headquarters of this body were located at Brussels with the office in the great Maison du Peuple, owned by the co-operatives of that city and forming the general headquarters of the Socialists, trade unions, and co-operative societies of Belgium. The present International Secretary is Camille Huysmans. His general function is to form a center of information and communication between the Socialist parties of the various countries. He has also accumulated one of the largest Socialist libraries in existence, including files of the Socialist papers of every country.

The International Socialist Bureau is composed of two delegates from each of the affiliated countries. It meets at least once each year and may be called together at any time in extraordinary session on request of any of the affiliated countries, if this request is, by correspondence, approved by a majority of the members of the Bureau. It has only advisory powers, and its decisions are in no way binding

upon the affiliated parties. Indeed the same is true of the decisions of the International Congress, and there have been instances of national refusals to heed such decisions without thereby injuring the standing of such a national party in the international organization. At the same time the moral effect of such decisions cannot but be very great.

The International Bureau issues appeals for international action when necessary. This is always done when there is a threat of war between any two affiliated nations. During the Russian revolution large sums of money were gathered from all parts of the world by the International Bureau and forwarded to the Russian Socialists.

Recently the various Socialist members of national legislative bodies felt the need of closer and more direct means of communication and co-operation. There are now more than two hundred such members, and the legislation for which they are working is much the same in all countries. Frequently the experience of one country furnishes the powerful arguments for or against similar legislation proposed elsewhere. The introduction of the same measure simultaneously in several nations would give a general momentum, so to speak, that would be of material assistance in securing its enactment. One of the most common objections offered to any legislation reducing hours, increasing wages, or in any way increasing the cost of production is that the nation first adopting it would be hampered in the international market. If the same legislation is simultaneously introduced in all competing nations this argument disappears. These are but suggestions of points in which there is room for co-operation. To meet this need a Socialist Interparliamentary Conference has been organized which held its first meeting immediately before the Stuttgart congress in 1907. Other sessions have been held since and methods of common action are being gradually worked out. In case of threatened war this conference can plan a common line of action for its members in the various parliaments which would be most effective in preventing war.

The germ of another agent of international co-operation was evolved at a recent meeting of the International Socialist Bureau. This was a Socialist and Labor News Agency. This will be based upon the widespread Socialist press already existing and is expected soon to form a newsgathering agency that will disseminate news matter which is of special interest to the working-class and which is quite generally neglected or distorted by existing news agencies.

Each of these organized forms of action has developed only when the work in some particular field of International Socialist activity becomes too great for existing organization. Consequently there is a large amount of international action for which no especial organs exist.

Any threat of war is always met by counter demonstrations on the part of the Socialists in the countries affected. It is generally admitted that these demonstrations did much to preserve peace between France and Germany at the time of the Morocco affair, and Socialists assert that they were directly responsible for the prevention of war between Norway and Sweden on the occasion of the separation of those two countries.

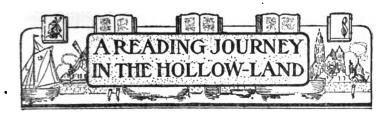
There was a rather striking incident in connection with the Franco-German situation that illustrates the Socialist position and powers at the present time. Karl Marx said, in discussing the "Six Great Powers of Europe," that a seventh and greater "Power" had arisen,-the "power of the international Socialist movement." When the German Socialists asked Jean Jaures, the great orator of the French Social movement, to speak in Berlin during the Moroccan crisis. Chancellor Von Buelow feared the effect of such an address so much that he instructed the German ambassador at Paris to transmit a request to M. Jaures to refrain from making any such speech. So far as anyone has been able to recall this was the first note ever addressed to an individual through such high diplomatic channels and the German Socialists declared that by so doing the "Seventh Great Power" has been granted diplomatic recognition and admitted to the "concert of nations."

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Recent events in America have shown that "citizenship" in this new "power" is not without value. When the Russian government sought the extradition of Jan Janoff Pouren in New York and Christian Rudowitz in Chicago, although they were both but poor peasants in Russia, and in America Rudowitz was but a number on a corporation payroll, the fact that they belonged to the International Socialist movement brought powerful friends to their aid. To be sure, these cases attracted thousands who had no sympathy with Socialism, yet it was only because of the widespread organization of the Socialist movement that the agitation was started and these powerful friends secured.

In view of this widespread international organization and the principles upon which it rests the Socialists base their claim to being the largest and most powerful "peace society" in existence. They assert that, even while the competitive or monopolistic system persists the Socialist movement offers the greatest guarantee for universal peace, and that only upon the abolition of the commercial antagenism upon which modern war rests is there to be found any assurance of permanent abolition of the arbitrament of blood and iron.

There are fully thirty thousand men and women who are directly affiliated or in such close sympathy with the international Socialist organization that they will respond to its efforts to promote peace. The Socialist movement is the war against war waged by those who have fought all wars.



Part V--Utrecht, Amsterdam, Broek, Zaandam, Monnikendam, Marken, Volendam, and Edam*

By George Wharton Edwards

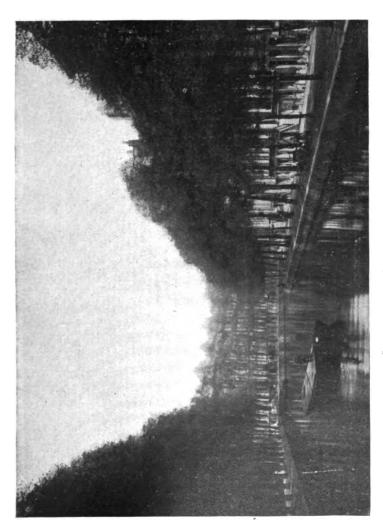
Y Dutch friend having left me temporarily, I was thrown on my own resources and leaving my baggage, I wended my way down to the "Catherijne Kade," crossing the canal. Naturally of a modest and retiring disposition, I do not court undue notoriety and observation. This is necessary to state here because alighting from the train at Utrecht, I immediately became aware that I was for some reason an object of attraction. The porters were rather attentive to my luggage and when I tipped them, they grinned broadly and winked at one another. I was curious as to their actions but it was when passing over the bridge on the Rijnkade, that I met a number of school children and to my amazement, something in my appearance convulsed them with laughter and with shouts and gesticulations, they turned and ran on ahead of me, walking backwards as children do, and staring at me the while. In vain I looked myself over, felt of my hat, my hair, and my collar, which seemed all correct and in place. Attracted by the noise men and women appeared at shop doors and, when I passed, fell in behind me, and soon I was at the head of a long, straggling procession, which closed in upon my heels in a most uncomfortable manner, and it was only by dodg-



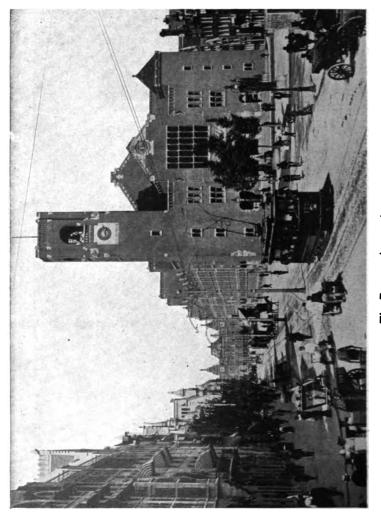
^{*}The "Reading Journey in the Hollow-Land" began in the September CHAUTAUQUAN and will continue through May.

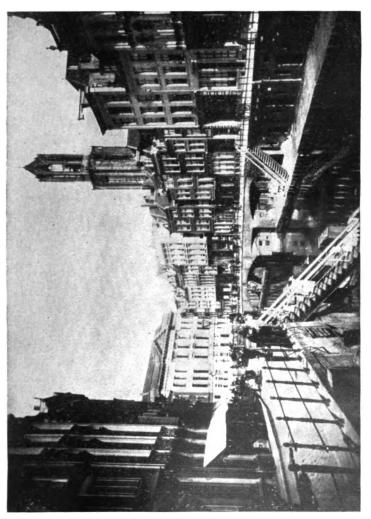
ing through an alley and turning on my steps, then through the Stadhuisbrug and back to the quiet streets by the canal, that I managed to elude my pursuers. "What," thought I, "is the matter with my appearance," and I stepped into a little shop which displayed some books in a window, and bore the sign, "Boekhandlerij," and to the clerk behind the counter asked did he "see anything strange in my costume?" His answer dumbfounded me. "Does Mynheer pull the teeth today?" Briefly told it transpired that a couple of itinerant, quack dentists had been in town the day before. that they carried American flags, and had extracted teeth free of charge in the Cathedral square, selling tooth-powder, besides, restoring miraculously the whiteness of black teeth in one application. "But why," said I, "am I thus followed, I am no dentist." "Why, Mynheer wears the yellow shoes like the others! never before have we seen such in Utrecht. therefore the people think Mynheer a dentist." I fled back to the station, and my comfortable tan shoes were promptly consigned to the depths of my traveling kit.

Utrecht lies peacefully in the midst of verdant fields and vast, deep woods. Its parks are charming; it has a fine campanile, opulent looking houses, and a university. Its canals are different from those of other Dutch towns, inasmuch as they lie considerably below the level of the streets. There are practically two roadways, one on each side of the waterway. The upper, lined with prosperous looking shops and well-appearing buildings, forming a sort of roof for a lower line of vaults and stores which give upon the lower level to the canal. The effect is picturesque and novel. The Cathedral is only a sort of fragment as the Nave was destroyed by a storm in 1674. From the vastness of the tower, it must have been one of the finest and most important in the Netherlands. It stands upon the opposite side of a large square. The interior of the remaining portion is disfigured by unsightly woodwork, but it contains some very interesting monuments. From the tower, a level country is visible for miles, with its towns and villages shining in the sunlight. The "Malieban" or Mall should be vis-

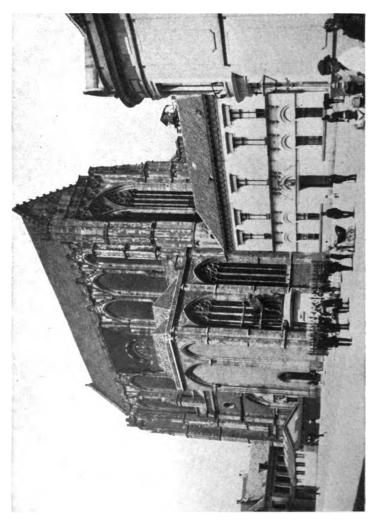


A Canal (Heeren Gracht), Amsterdam.





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The Rijks Museum, Amsterdam.



View of Canal entering Amsterdam. At the right, the Montalbaanstoren.

ited, a charming avenue of lime trees, three rows deep on either side and more than a mile in length, forming one of the finest promenades in the Netherlands. The city is the headquarters of the Jansenists, a curious Roman Catholic sect, founded in the fifteenth century by Cornelius Jansen. They form a separate communion in Holland, numbering some six thousand, and "bull" after "bull" has been promulgated against them by various Popes. A very ancient city, Utrecht has a very interesting history. In early days when the country was subject to the Romans, it was known as "Trajectum ad Rhenum," that is, Ford of the Rhine. Its first bishop was Wilibrod, an Anglo-Saxon, who came from England to preach the gospel in Walcheren. The princebishops of Utrecht were famous for their power and wealth. and ruled with the counts of Holland for many centuries. The famous treaty of Utrecht, the union of the southern provinces, the foundation of the Netherlands republic (1579) was signed here. The paintings on exhibition in the town are commonplace and do not call for special mention.

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The Royal Palace, Amsterdam.

The saying of Erasmus who waxed witty at the expense of Amsterdam, and compared the Amsterdam people to "crows living in the tops of trees," need not be quoted further, as every traveler refers to it in detail, but it is certain that were the city turned upside down it would present the appearance of a forest of bare tree trunks. change, I am informed, rests upon some 3,500 piles driven into the sand. There is so much to be seen in Amsterdam that one is at a loss where to begin; the canals are filled with huge ships and barges busily loading and discharging cargoes, and in the streets are seen vast heaps of casks and bales, and facing them, shops, crowded with people, here the shopmen and clerks, there the rough wandering sailors and boatmen wide breeched and ear-ringed. The city is most confusing in its configuration. The north side is given up to the docks on the Ij (pronounced "Eye"). It is built in the form of a horseshoe, and the streets radiate from the "Dam" like a spider's web. The Dam is therefore the center or hub and presents a busy aspect at all hours of the day. On the Rem-

Bridge over the Amstel looking towards the Paleis voor Volksvlyt, Amsterdam.

brandt Plein the scene is very animated and gay on fine evenings with the crowds, and the lighted cafés, and the cosmopolitan gathering. But it is the river front which will attract the tourist, and leaning upon the rail of a bridge one's nostrils are greeted with the odor of strange bales of goods, of tar, and the smell of cooking from the galleys of the vessels. And one cannot linger long upon the bridge either for there is the constant raising and lowering of the draws to let the boats pass to and fro. The rattle of the chain and block mingles with the roar of wheels, and the noisy whistles on the tugs, the jangle of chimes from the steeples, and the guttural shouts of the boatmen. Huge "Boms" pass in tow of diminutive tugs, carriages pass side by side with the boats, sails are mirrored in shop windows, and the rigging is reflected in the water of the canal. From the Dam start the numerous tramways with attending crowds in swarms, soldiers are on duty before the Palace, merchants hurry to and fro from the exchange, shoppers pass to and from the Kalverstraat, and peasants in curious costumes from the country stand and gaze in wonder. During the last week in August the small boys of the city are permitted to make a playground of the "Beurs" or exchange, a privelege granted by the city in commemoration of the discovery of a plot by the Spanish in 1622. The massive gloomy building on the west side is the palace, but the Queen only stops here one week in the year. It is described by Thackeray as follows:

"You have never seen the Palace of Amsterdam, my dear sir? Why, there's a marble hall in that palace that will frighten you as much as any hall in 'Vathek,' or a nightmare. At one end of the cold, glassy, glittering, ghostly, marble hall there stands a throne on which a white marble king ought to sit with his white legs gleaming down into the white marble below, and his white eyes looking at a great marble atlas, who bears upon his icy shoulders a blue globe as big as a full moon."

And he continues in the same strain. But frankly I think the room of fine proportions, and altogether impressive in its magnificent length of 120 feet, 60 feet in width, and 100 feet in height with white marble walls.

There are many curious back streets in Amsterdam



Typical House and Garden at Broek in Waterland

through which I have wandered day after day, streets bordering on quiet, sluggish canals, and lined with dark, solemn looking house of black and brown brick, with immaculately clean white window frames, rising sometimes to a considerable height and culminating in curious, stepped gables from which quaint cranes and hooked pulleys project, and above which the "Hei-tutors" fly. I don't know why, but these houses suggest spookey secrets, and seem inhabited solely by strange waxen-faced, lace-becapped ladies gazing furtively into the little "Spui" (or small mirror) which is invariably fastened to each window. I have mental pictures of interiors behind these many-paned windows containing vast stores of exquisite marqueterie furniture, rare Delft ware and paintings by Hals, massive sideboards crammed with Dutch Apostle spoons; inverted silver drinking cups surmounted by windmills and antique ships. and heavy cut-glass chandeliers with brass balls hanging pendant from the ceiling. Many days have I idled along these silent "Grachts," seeing only these dim, furtive, reflected, waxen faces in the windows and an occasional black cat scurrying across the way. But there is great



Mill, Zaandam.

contrast to the silent, dark canals in the great "Kalverstraat" which runs south from the Dam, by day and night filled with hurrying multitudes of merchants, peasants, and voyagers, and noisy with the clank of the wooden "shoon." The Kalverstraat is the Broadway of Amsterdam, but only in the sense of its being a busy thoroughfare, and not from its width, for it is quite narrow. The tourist will seek in the evening the "Warmoes Straat" in which is situated the "Krasnapolsky," the most gigantic restaurant in Europe, and perhaps the most cosmopolitan. It was here I caused consternation one evening at dinner by calling for a plate of ice, for I was thirsty and longed for a cold drink of good water. The waiters came and looked at me by turn and excitedly talked among themselves and gesticulated, finally calling the manager who asked me with great courtesy what I desired. I explained that I desired a plate of ice. He repeated "Ice?" I again said ice. Three waiters behind him looked at each other and echoed ice. Then they all vanished. I waited. Finally I called the nearest waiter and giving him with a magnificent air a "dubbeltje" (small coin)

Reading Journey in the Hollow-Land

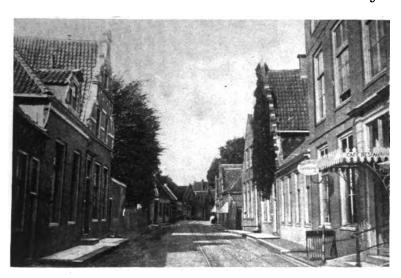
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Canal, Monnikendam.



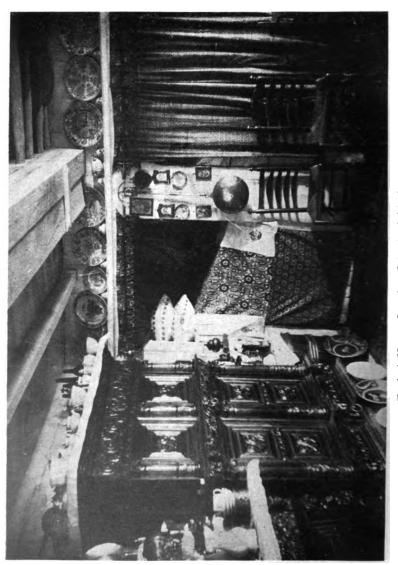
Street in Monnikendam.



Street in Monnikendam, showing leaning Houses.



On the Island of Marken.

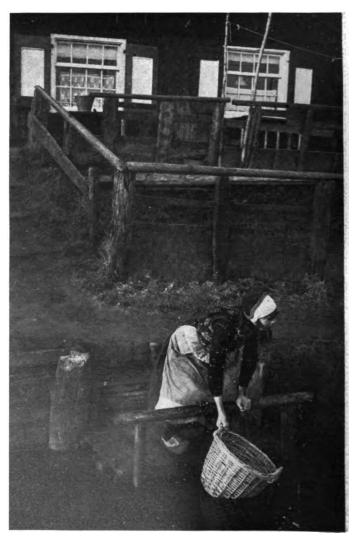




The Walk along the Dyke, Marken.



The Fishing Fleet at the Wharf or Dyke, Marken.



Washing Clothes, Island of Marken.



Peasants, Volendam.



Typical Group, Volendam.



Boats, Volendam.



Peasant Group, Volendam.

said simply "a plate of ice, if you please." He too started visfbly and said, "Ice?" I once more repeated ice. He in his turn vanished. After waiting for some time came the headwaiter with a plate of ice, two small cubes of the size of butter balls, set it down before me with a hesitating air and said, "ice mynheer," then stood to one side to see what I would do with it. Then came waiter number one, bearing a plate with one small piece of ice of the butter ball size. and stood to one side with the proprietor to see what I was which he in turn set down before me, saying "ice mynheer," going to do. Then came waiter number three bearing triumphantly a plate with another small piece of ice which he placed with the other dishes, saying "if you please, ice mynheer," and joined the other two. With a spoon I placed the four small pieces of ice in a glass with some seltzer, and to their astonishment I drank it. They seemed satisfied, however, for when my bill was presented at the end of the dinner, the charge to my consternation was four gulden for the ice alone (\$1.60), and I noticed the extreme respect with which the waiter brought me my hat, my coat, and my cane and bowed me out into the night.

Around the Rembrandt's Plein are the princisurrounding the cafés, statue of the painter. In summer evenings this square is well-nigh the strolling crowds impassable with from Kalverstraat and the people seated about the small tables and chatting gaily. Friday evening until the night of Saturday, one of the greatest sights of the city is the "Jews' quarter." In this veritable "Ghetto," Spinoza was born. The house is still shown and is numbered 41 on the Waterloo Plein. The great Rembrandt, also, dwelt for a number of years at number four Jordenbreestraat. Of course, as is well known, this is the great center of diamond cutting and polishing, and in their little dingy cafés the merchants may be seen chaffering over gleaming heaps of the precious stones. Some writers have spoken of the fact of their letting the nail of the little finger grow long so that they may use it as a scoop, but I have not seen this myself. In this

quarter one may buy wonderful, antique rings and diamond sparks, but unless one is expert and delights in bargaining, and is willing to be cheated, one should avoid the experience. At the head of the "Gelderschekade" is a tower with a tiny spire, called the Weeper's tower, dating from the fifteenth century. Here the family or wives of the fishermen waved good-bye to the departing sailors long ago and watched them for a long distance. At the side of the fish market is "St. Anthony's weigh-house," a quaint, red-brick structure. Not far from here is the "Prins Hendrik Kade" where De Ruyter lived in the seventeenth century. It bears on its front his portrait in relief.

The St. Anthony's weigh-house, now used fire station, was in the fifteenth century outer limit of the city. Some of the city Guilds met here, and I am told a society of surgeons once had a dissecting room on the upper floor. Rembrandt's "School of Anatomy" originally hung in this building. There are some magnificent, charitable institutions in the city. Charles II. when in exile at Bruges is said to have remarked that "God would never forsake Holland," so charitable were its inhabitants. A frequent sight in the streets are the children from the orphanages who may be recognized easily by their picturesque costume or uniform of red and black. The skirt and bodice are divided equally. vertically in two colors, one side red, the other black. I had an excellent view in the evening at the open-air concert in the Zoological Gardens of the life of the people and at the "Tolhuis," a large tea garden across the ferry of the lights of the city and listened to the music of the fine military band. "The Rijks Museum" contains magnificent and world renowned paintings, the list of which is too extended to note in this article, but the traveler will seek the Gallery of Honor, at the end of which is the Rembrandt Room with its huge masterpieces. "The Night Watch" at once impels attention. It is, of course, not a night watch at all, for the lighting is from sunlight in a courtyard, but the misnomer will forever cling to the canvas. It represents Captain Frans Banning Cocq and his company of Arquebusiers leaving their headquarters for military exercises.

In the same hall hangs the brilliant work of Van der Helst, "The Banquet" of the Amsterdam shooters. This work brought the artist a great reputation. Thackeray describes the hands of the figures as being as wonderful as the faces. Here are pictures by Frans Hals, Jan Weenix, Metsu, Dou, Ter Boorch, Jan Steen, Wouwermans, Hobbema, Ruisdael, and a host of others no less wonderful. There are also many modern paintings, the most popular of which is Queen Wilhelmina's coronation by Ecrelmans. There are numerous other picture galleries in the city. All in all, the tourist will find it difficult to tear himself away from Amsterdam.

Broek has long been celebrated by writers of Holland as being the cleanest place in the world but when I passed through it did not strike me as being cleaner than any other town of its class, though it did impress me as being more upon the toy-box order than any other, and it seemed to me that the inhabitants were painfully aware of their reputation and were trying to live up to it. It is certainly clean, for across the road there is a wooden bar to prevent horses or vehicles from entering the principal street, and a sign pointing out the way to a back thoroughfare by the canal. I saw an old dame who was nearly as wide as she was tall, busily sweeping up some imaginary dust into a pan in the middle of the roadway. She scowled at me as I passed so that I looked at my boots to see if they were not as clean as they might have been. It is all on a diminutive scale and looks like a play town arranged for some fête, and there are tiny ponds before the houses and three-foot drawbridges over two-foot canals, connecting the walks. But it is a pretty village with its tiny gardens, its trim trees, and its little ponds and I am not sorry that I passed through it.

Monnikendam I spent the night in. A queer, forgotten town with a stately, old brick church, big enough to hold a regiment. The houses are red, the shutters are green, the streets are deserted and the pavement is of very

yellow brick. It was from here that I took a sail boat for Marken, which wonderful island is nothing but a huge meadow dyked up against the sea, with the most theatrical population imaginable. It is said that the women rarely ever leave the island and that they know nothing of the outer world but I am inclined to doubt this, for they do understand the value of the "stuijver" (coin). The little villages, of which there are several, are built on high mounds of earth brought from the mainland in boats, and these are connected by narrow, brick-paved roadways running across the fields. In the spring and fall when the winds are high. the sea rises and the little villages are separated completely. The costumes of the men are comical. They wear a kind of divided skirt ending at the knees, with a blue shirt, and sou'wester. The dress of the women I shall describe with a certain diffidence as a short, full petticoat of some blue stuff, a very gay bodice covered with bright flowers, in red, green, and purple, which seems to be laced up the back; blueknitted sleeves from wrist to elbow, thence to the shoulder in white, and bright orange handkerchief or a string of coral beads around the neck. Each woman wears a queer, close-fitting cap of black cloth with an edging of white lace, and her hair is cut straight across in a bang at the forehead, and two, long, curly locks hanging down each side of her face to her shoulders. As for the children, up to the age of ten, they are dressed exactly alike. It is only possible to tell the boys from the girls by the button the former have on their caps, and the red rose the latter wear under their chins. Marken is pronounced "Marriker." It has been said that Marken is no place for the sensitive traveler, and this, I think, true. The people are certainly mercenary to the last degree and some travelers have called them savages. But I would not go quite so far as this. The women impressed me as being better-natured than the men, and I was prepared to take it all on trust and believe in them thoroughly until I saw some of the interiors of the homes. The trouble with Marken is that it is a commercial community, a business enterprise with a discreetly hidden business manager. The lavishly displayed bric-a-brac, Delft plate, brass milk cans, the Apostle spoons, as a rule are all made for the occasion and placed there by astute dealers, and the prices they ask for these would stagger even an American. And so let us leave them to the business.

Certainly, if Volendam, which I shall describe hereafter as a deep red village, is so identified, then Zaandam must be styled the "Green Village," for nowhere in Holland is there such a lavish display of green paint, and curiously enough the effect is charming. It would seem as if the weather had a qualifying effect upon the color for it becomes with time of an exquisite turquoise tint. These houses seen beneath the rows of trees which run down its long streets, are in effect most pleasing. Zaandam is divided by the river, Zaan. There is a little hotel called the "De Zon," presided over by a most kind, old vrouwe, and here one may sit at peace with the world, and watch the ducks swimming in the canal. Zaandam is preeminently the windmill town and invariably is associated with Don Quixote but of course he has had nothing whatever to do with it, and Whistler would say "why drag him in." These mills are whirling and gesticulating in all directions. There are blue mills, red mills, white mills, brown mills, black mills, and two green ones. I am told that for the most part they are pumping water, but I saw some which make fertilizer: others grind or cut tobacco, and many saw wood. The guide book tells me that there are four hundred of these mills and that they stretch along the canal for five miles. I counted eighty from the station alone, while waiting for the train, to the amazement of a cabman who was watching me and who certainly thought I was crazy. The moment I disembarked at Zaandam, I was beset with guides of all sorts: small boys danced before me, old men pushed and pulled me, and one man not being able to reach me for the crowd, tapped me on the head with a long stick which he held in his hand and holding up his other hand, shouted "Peter's house, Peters' house." But with one single word in Dutch with which I had been equipped by my Dutch

friend and which I will never disclose, I discouraged them, and sought out the house of Peter myself, for one cannot miss it, whether one wishes or not. It is now encased for preservation in an outer covering of zinc and brick, and outwardly resembles a small chapel. There are two small rooms to be seen, in one of which is Peter's bed. The walls of the hut are covered with autographs and some Russian tablets. Peter the Great lived here in 1697 when he worked as a shipwright in the yard of one Mynheer Kalf. The monarch is said to have spent only eight days in this hut and if this be so, he is certainly responsible for a great deal of trouble to the poor tourists and no little money has fallen into the pockets thereby of the bland Zaandamers. Anton Mauve, one of the greatest of the modern Dutch school of painters, was born here in 1838. He died at Arnheim in 1888. Strange to say neither Zaandam nor Arnheim has evinced the slightest interest in the fact.

And now Volendam, the artist village. To this we must go in the "Trekschuyt," a funny, little ark of a boat drawn by boy power along the canal, said boy and a sturdy one, too, being hitched up into a sort of harness with a wide leather band across his breast and the tow-line attached to a hook in his back. He leans over his "job" at an angle of 45 degrees and pulls the boat along the canal at the rate of about two and a half miles an hour which is fast going considering. Mynheer of the vast, gloomy hotel at Monnickendam, helped me down to the boat with my traps in the morning and introduced me to our boy motor. The boat. which lay in the canal, was shaped like a small Noah's Ark. nearly as broad as it was long, with a door at one end, giving entrance to the interior. Through the little, square windows in the sides, I saw the pretty faces of a number of girls in charming lace caps. The faces vanished as I looked and I heard a good deal of giggling and the boat swaved alarmingly from side to side. Once on board Mynheer presented me formally to the quaintest collection of girls that I have ever seen. There were six of them in the prettiest costumes imaginable. They quite filled the little cabin, with

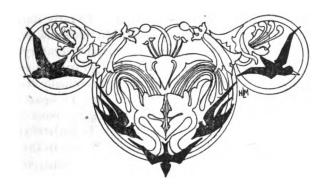
a number of brightly polished milk-cans and one huge basket of celery. Soon we were off and in response to their questioning I began to tell the girls where I came from. and where I was going, my name, my age, my family history and my occupation, and soon they were gaily chattering upon matters, not more than half of which I could understand. I asked one of them to sing me a song which she did very shyly, at first, and the rest joined in the chorus. It was something about chasing pigs out of the garden, and a poor, sore heart, but I could not see the connection although this must have been my fault. Then my neighbor asked me if I would sing a song. I said I couldn't, that I never had excepting in the privacy of my own quarters, but that I would if they wished it and would absolve me from the consequences, that there were cows in the fields all about us, and that some consideration was due to the boy who was pulling the boat. At the first sound of my voice, the boy returned to the boat and asked me if anything was wrong. I, of course, resented his impudence, thinking that if the young ladies did not object that it was no concern of his. The girls seemed perfectly satisfied, for after the first few bars, they laughed uproariously and they did not ask me to continue, although I was perfectly willing. They did, however, entertain me charmingly by telling me much that concerned Volendam at which we arrived all too soon. The village is below, or almost so, the sea level, excepting some of the houses on the outer dyke. I may say that Volendam is now, alas, different from what it was when I first saw it, nearly twenty years ago. The traveler is beginning to find it out and Mynheer Spanders' Inn has been enlarged and is thronged in the summer. The houses are largely of wood with quaint gables and the color, as I remarked before, is a deep red. That is to say the houses are so painted, and, as well, this is the color of the jackets and trousers of the men. The great trouble with Volendam is its open drain from which there is great danger, I should think, of typhoid. Artists have found Volendam and its streets and houses are thronged with them. They come, too,

from all parts of the world. The population has learned to like them and the men, women, and children can fall at once into the easiest possible poses.

Mynheer Spander and his kind daughters were hospitality itself. They have provided a richly furnished studio for the painter which contains nearly all that one would need. The men are taciturnity itself. On their return from fishing, one may see them squatting on their heels all along the dyke in sheltered spots, smoking furiously and persistingly without saying one word for hours. One is struck by the collections of wooden shoes arranged outside each doorway in assorted sizes, until one learns that it is the rule that all shoes must be left outside before entering. The houses are very small, usually a story and a half, and are below the level of the street. The Volendam matron, when dressed ceremoniously, wears, I am credibly informed, some fourteen petticoats which are suspended from a wooden hoop worn about the waist. Those who can afford it, wear as many more as they can get, the outer one being of woolen stuff in broad blue and white stripes, embroidered with silk. The cap is unique and different from all others and has two. long lace points, projecting from each side of the face. The community is of the Roman Catholic faith. It is only on Saturdays and Sundays that the little harbor is completely filled with fishing-boats with their crews, presenting a very busy sight, and at church on Sunday the picture is unique.

Returning to Edam by the "Treskschuyt," one might linger for a little while at its museum. The house is a sufficiently, remarkable one. It has been styled "a curio of curios." Mynheer informs me that it was built by a sea captain, a wonderful man, away back in the sixteenth century, who so loved his vocation that he fitted up its interior as far as possible in the likeness of a ship. The custodian hands one a candle and invites one to descend into the "Hold." Formerly, I am told, this portion of the household floated in the canal water but it is now fastened to the rest of the structure. There is a steep ship's ladder, leading to a small cabin on the upper deck, which contains a

curious table so mechanically arranged that upon displacing the top some secret drawers are disclosed. There are various cunningly arranged closets, all contrived by this singular character. It is filled with old books and curios, and on the wall is a large painting, representing the battle of Chatham. I am told that the Dutch vessels therein engaged were built here. Of course, the town gives its name to the brand of cheese but as a matter of fact, little, if any, of this commodity is manufactured here.





V. The Painters of the Peasantry

By George Breed Zug
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THE painters of domestic scenes, who were the subject of last month's article, were, in a way, the culmination of the national art. Other schools had introduced episodes from the intimate, daily life of the people into pictures whose central theme was religious. In early Italian art Giotto and his followers introduced fishermen and peasants into large sacred compositions. In fifteenth century Florence Benozzo Gozzoli and Fra Lippo Lippi painted pictures which were in the spirit of genre, though nominally religious. Likewise the early Flemish painters had brought scenes from daily life into their pictures of the Madonna and of the Deposition. In all these, however, the genre** element was apparently introduced to give naturalness to the story. and to enliven a religious scene by a purely human interest. The earlier Dutch painters had even gone so far as to reproduce tavern interiors and gatherings of the peasantry. But in the earlier schools and among the Dutch who came before Ter Borch it was exclusively the peasantry, the beggars, and

**The meaning of the "genre element" is indicated by the discussion of genre painting in last month's article. Philip Gilvert Hamerton in his "Painting in France," page 57, states that the expression generally refers to "a picture of small dimensions representing human character dramatically by means of clothed figures." Notice that in this art the incident depicted is usually of an intimate or even trifling character, never heroic or sublime in spirit.

^{*}Articles of this series which have already appeared are: "Frans Hals and the Portrait" (September); "Rembrandt" (October); "Rembrandt and His Pupils" (November); "Painters of Domestic Scenes" (December).

the venders of wares who lent the genre touch. Thus it was reserved for Ter Borch to be the first painter to devote his brush exclusively to the portrayal of the gentler classes. Metsu's artistic qualities deteriorated when he put them to the service of the lower classes, Ver Meer and De Hooch were at their best only when depicting elegance and refinement.

This group then can be considered successful only in their treatment of gentility, but there is another side of genre painting without which the story of the Dutch school would be incomplete. For the elegant ladies of Ter Borch and the gallant officers of Metsu no more made the whole of Dutch life than did the cooks, the fishmongers, and the peddlers from whom Brouwer, Ostade, and Steen drew their inspiration. And it is to this other side that the masters of this article, and their many unnoticed followers, devoted their time and skill. And if their record be true, these peasants and artisans must have been a roistering lot over their feastings and their carousings. Just because this class of subjects does not make a ready appeal to the layman it is, perhaps a good time to assert again that in art and especially in the art of painting the subject of the artistic production is of least value, while the way in which the subject is presented is of greatest importance. In art it is not the matter, but the manner which counts. Great art may transfigure almost any subject. Of this truth there is no better illustration than the work of these genre painters, who were true artists, of consummate skill, of esthetic temperament. A peasant drinking, a girl chopping onions, a group of people playing cards, or an officer and his orderly may be handled with such a high degree of artistic skill that the work is more admirable as a work of art than many a picture of gods and heroes, or even of saints and martyrs. For what makes a work of art? Surely not the theme alone, but rather the higher qualities of artistic expression, refined and expressive drawing, skilful use of light and shade, good painting, harmonious color, and, finally, the pleasing and beautiful arrangement of all of these elements so as to produce a "life enhancing" result. Certainly a noble theme and a great conception are valuable, but they are of no avail if not nobly treated.

These little Dutchmen seem to value the domestic interior and the street scene as highly as they do the human figure. They seem to paint not nature merely, nor men and women merely, but man in his relations to nature. Nor is nature for them either a mere setting or a mere accessory, as with the Italians, nor is the human interest the supreme interest, but, instead, the two as related and interdependent.

Of these painters of the humble class the first to be mentioned is Adriaen Brouwer (also spelled Brauwer and De Brauwere). He was one of the first, if not the very first to devote himself exclusively to the portrayal of the lower classes, and through his influence many other men chose the same general theme. Born in 1605 or 1606 in Oudenarde in Flanders, he seems to have had his first training under Frans Hals, and has, therefore, been claimed by both countries and appears in the histories of both Dutch and Flemish art. But though Flemish by birth he was wholly Dutch by training. If report speaks true he was ill-used by Hals. who is said to have made him work incessantly and then starved him for his pains. Brouwer soon left the painter of Haarlem and studied under some unknown master in Amsterdam. When only twenty-five or twenty-six years of age he went to Antwerp, where he was thrown into prison as a spy. He was released, so his biographer tells us, at the intercession of Rubens, who would have had him reside with him. But so uncongenial to Brouwer's peasant nature were the magnificent surroundings of the master of Antwerp, that he considered Rubens' splendor little less irksome than the Duke of Arenburg's prison, and from this time he seems to have led a lawless sort of life until his sudden death at thirty-two years of age.

In his art he seldom leaves the tavern. His subject is nearly always the Dutch boor in his glory, drinking, quarreling, and generally misbehaving himself. Brouwer's themes are often frankly vulgar, but their technical treatment is

always masterly. The layman whose interest in art has not gone beyond his interest in the subject always detests Brouwer's pictures. It is the artist and the connoisseur who are invariably filled with admiration. His earliest pictures suffer from the common fault of young painters in being too crowded, restless and vociferous. But with the years he learned artistic sobriety and simplicity. His painting in the Munich Gallery of "Card Players Quarreling in an Inn" is a marvel of energy and sincerity. The great French painter, Meissonier has treated similar subjects, but he goes back to the eighteenth century for his figures, which seem consequently, unreal and unconvincing. In fact all antiquarian painters such as Meissonier, who dress up their characters in the costumes of a past generation, end with superficiality and a certain lack of vigor. These are no faults of Brouwer for he painted the habituté of the Dutch tavern as he knew him. It was the very man with whom he himself drank, played and quarreled whom he cast on his canvas with absolute truth in the presentation. Moreover his grip on character goes far to redeem the unattractiveness of his material. In addition to this he is, perhaps, the greatest colorist in this group of Dutch artists. If it were not for the early death of Brouwer he might have proved himself the greatest of the peasant painters; as it is he has been surpassed in range and in variety of output if not in knowledge of character by a fellow-student under Hals.

Adriaen van Ostade was baptized in Haarlem on the tenth of December, 1610. When a youth of but eighteen he was working in the studio of Hals in company with Brouwer. Ostade was soon an independent master and set up his own studio in Haarlem at the age of twenty or twenty-two. His earlier pictures come very close to the style and spirit of Brouwer but in his middle period he shows something of the deep warm coloring and magical chiaroscuro of the master of "The Night Watch," which has led to Ostade's being aptly called the Rembrandt of genre painters. The works of his middle period are his best, since his later pictures are painted more thinly and with colder color. He

was one of the many stay-at-homes of the Dutch school, spending all his life in Haarlem and painting steadily until his death at the age of eighty-five. His "Peasants in an Inn," though painted in 1662, a little later than his best period, shows all the better qualities of his style. The room is naturally lighted through a window at the back and through a large door at the left. Three peasants are gathered about a low table. The man in the center is tuning his violin, another is lighting his pipe from a brazier on the table, while the third, seated on a three-legged chair, is resting a jug on one knee while he holds up a glass in his hand. A woman approaches with a chair. Delightfully natural is the dog begging the little girl for her bread and butter. The subdued lighting, the warm color, the life-likeness in pose and face of the peasants help to make this homely transcript of nature a true work of art. Very careful also is the painting of still-life,—the jug, the glass, the low table and the rustic chairs. The figures are as true to the life they represent as are the peasants of the French painter Millet. Indeed it is interesting to note that Millet had a great admiration for Ostade, and was, without doubt influenced by his work. There is an etching by Ostade that represents a poor peasant family gathered about a frugal table and in the act of giving thanks. Millet esteemed this work very highly, and those who know both the etching and the "Angelus" of Millet will recognize that the young man of the painting, standing in devout attitude and the woman with bent head and clasped hands are without doubt derived from similar figures in the etching. There seems in fact a bond of artistic kinship between the Hollander of the seventeenth century and the Frenchman of the nineteenth in their choice of homely people, simple treatment, and their unaffected human feeling.

Something of this sentiment and this feeling are discernible in Ostade's painting of "The Schoolmaster." The troubled look of the teacher as he wearily bends forward, the crying boy, and the nonchalance of the two stout little urchins beside the desk show the artist's appreciation of the incident depicted. There is a warm golden tone to the picture and an interesting spotting of lights and darks. There is not, it must be confessed, sufficient concentration in arrangement; no one figure is emphasized by light and color, but the eye is allowed to wander over the whole picture instead of being attracted involuntarily to a central point of interest. Ostade may be counted among the fairly prolific producers, since we have nearly four hundred works in oil besides a large number of water-colors, drawings, and etchings.

Among Adriaen's pupils was his younger brother Isaak van Ostade, who was born in 1621 and died at the age of twenty-eight. His earliest pictures are painted in apparent imitation of his brother's work and represent interiors with peasants. Later he developed a style of his own, his favorite subjects being winter landscapes with people amusing themselves on the frozen canals, and such out-door scenes as "The Wayside Inn." Isaak is, however, on the whole inferior to his brother since his work is usually thin in painting and cold in color. It is with the landscape painters that he should really be compared and with them he cannot rank among the best.

There is a painter of this group who is at times as spiritual as Rembrandt or again as coarse as Brouwer, now as refined as Metsu, now as careless as Ostade when he is nodding, who at his best is as great a colorist and draughtsman as Ter Borch and who combines in his animated compositions more various episodes from the drama of life than any Dutchman save only Rembrandt. We refer of course to Jan Steen. He alone of all the Little Dutchmen is equally successful in the painting of both high and low-life. The fine ladies of Ter Borch and Metsu are never insipid though they are elegantly serious; the boors of Brouwer are more than merely vulgar, they are very real and human, but Steen's ladies and sumptuously clad doctors have something of the vigor of his peasants yet with all their own refinement. His peasants caught by the artist in their scenes of merriment are the unconscious actors in the comedy of human life of seventeenth century Holland. None of the Dutch paintings excel certain masterpieces of Steen in combining all the good qualities of painting; no painter save Rembrandt equals Steen in variety of subject and adaptability of method. He knows how to be tender with the sick and suffering, and to be serious with those who are sad, while more often he is merry with the light-hearted and a boon companion to the roisterers. In view of the theme of the present article only one side of his artistic expression will be illustrated.

Jan Steen, the son of a well-to-do brewer, was born in Levden in 1626 and died there in 1679. Although he was a born painter and a diligent worker his pictures brought him only about twenty florins (about \$8) apiece, which was not enough to support his large family. There are stories of an apothecary seizing and selling the unfortunate man's pictures in payment of a small debt for medicines, and of his landlord's accepting three paintings in lieu of rent. To eke out his income, it seems, he leased or owned at different periods in his life two breweries in the neighboring town of Delft. This and the fact that he kept a tavern in his last years was sufficient foundation for early writers to tell stories of his convivial habits, of the jolly painter and of his boon companions. Some authors have gone so far as to assert that he was a habitual drunkard, but one must readily see that the artist who produced the five hundred paintings that have come down to us could not have been a habitual drunkard. His sureness of hand and his clearness of vision are incompatible with such a life.

In Steen's "Bad Company" there may be something of a warning. An ingenuous youth has fallen into what is indeed "bad company!" That it may be seen how high a place this picture holds in the estimation of those most competent to judge, it may not be out of place to quote the dean of American art critics:

"The picture," writes Mr. John C. Van Dyke, "stands for the individual genius of Steen. The theme is certainly not elevating, but one forgets it directly he looks at the manner in which it is portrayed. The character of the drawing is masterful, and that is not





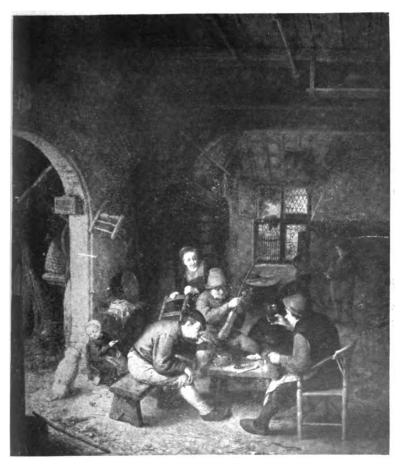
"Bad Company," by Jan Steen. In the Louvre, Paris.



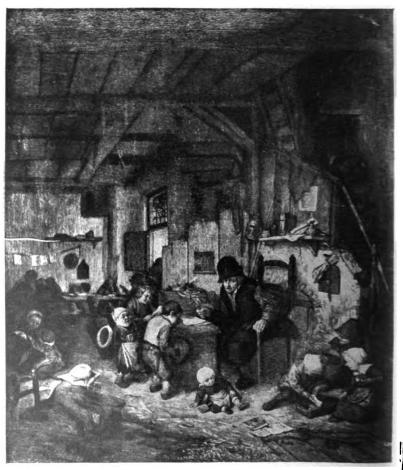
"The Family Meal," by Jan Steen. In the Louvre, Paris.



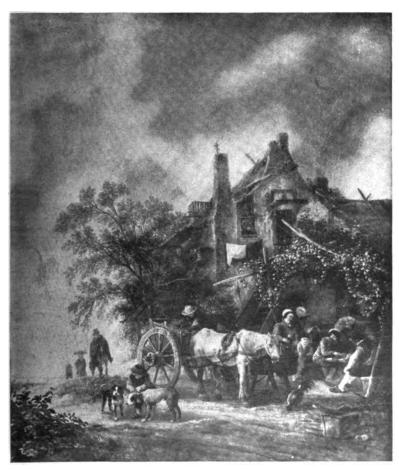
"The Feast of St. Nicholas," by Ian Steen. In the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam.



"Peasants in an Inn," by Adriacn van Ostade. In the Hague Museum.



"The School Master," by Adriaen van Ostade. In the Louvre, Paris.



"The Wayside Inn," by Isaak van Ostade. In the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam.



Le Bénédicité (Grace before Meat), by Nicolas Maes. In the Louvre, Paris.



"The Spinner,' by Nicolas Maes. In the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam.

always the case in Steen's pictures. Here he is very sure, very marked in the meaning of his lines, very emphatic in giving bulk and solidity. The limpness of the young man, the half-intoxicated sway of the voung woman, the arm of the woman at the left, the clothing, chairs, and floor are superbly characterized. And Steen is just as clever in composition as Ostade, and more varied. He knit and wove objects together in a wonderful woof of tones and colors, until they were all of a piece, united, harmonious. This he has done in 'Bad Company.' And what a splendid color! The richness of the blues, yellows, and reds is relieved against a deeper golden-brown background—the tones all simple, transparent, mellow, admirable in their relationship. Add to this a painting as facile and sure almost as that of Hals, and we have the nake up of as fine a piece of painting as Dutch art has ever shown."

Less carefully drawn, but with equal vivacity and more light-heartedness is "The Family Meal." Here, as often happens in Steen's art, there is too much crowding of figures, not sufficient concentration of attention. He seems to be laughing with humanity and when he laughs at humanity it is without bitterness; like Hogarth he preaches his sermons upon the vanity of human life all the more tellingly because of his evident sympathy and good feeling. Sympathy and good feeling are also shown in his paintings of He is so much at home in illustrating the joys and sorrows of childhood that he is acknowledged to excel all his contemporaries in this line. Ostade and the other Dutchmen represent little children who are not only stubby and thick-necked, but stolid and expressionless as well. Such a picture as "The Festival of St. Nicholas" shows Steen's understanding of the child nature. The festival of St. Nicholas is celebrated in Holland on the sixth of December, and on the eve of this holy day the children hang up their shoes and stockings, and the good children are rewarded with gifts of toys and cakes, while the bad boys and girls receive only a rod. The picture which is herewith reproduced is supposed to represent the family of the painter. His father and mother are in the background; in the foreground to the right his wife is holding out her hands to the happy child, who is laden with gifts, while the older sister in the background is presenting their big brother with a bunch of rods in a shoe, and the younger brother is pointing roguishly at him. Steen was an uneven painter, often falling below his best, but judged by his many successes in his long list of five hundred pictures he is the unapproachable master among the Little Dutchmen for variety, for dramatic gifts, for invention, and for knowledge of character, high and low.

It should be noted that some of these genre painters really belong in two or three classes. Metsu and Gerard Dou were painters of the peasantry and distinguished portraitists as well, but for convenience Dou was brought in as Rembrandt's pupil. Another of Rembrandt's pupils who was also an important portraitist was Nicholas Maes, but as his most charming work consists of his paintings of peasant women he has his place in this article. He was born in 1632 and died in 1693. He was a born genius, for only a genius could have painted at sixteen years of age "Le Bénédité" (Grace before Meat), a masterpiece of drawing painting, and feeling. Two years after this accomplishment he went to Rembrandt for three years of study. He then devoted himself to portraiture without producing any masterpiece. It is therefore not his portraits but such subjects as "Grace before Meat" and "The Spinner" which have given him distinction. While one may easily perceive a certain Rembrandt quality in these works yet their own unique qualities of color and feeling save them from being in any way imitative. For no master has portrayed old age with greater charm and suggestion of contentment.

Even after so cursory a view of Dutch art one can see that other nations have produced as great schools of landscape and portrait painting, that Italy and France have done the best in mural painting, but that only the Little Dutchmen of the seventeenth century have raised the painting of domestic scenes to the dignity of a national form of expression, and it is they who gave such varied expression to the life of their people that they still remain the greatest school of genre painters the world has ever seen.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.

See Histories of Dutch Painting (General Bibliography).
As for the painters of last month's article, the following books are specially recommended:
Sir Walter Armstrong's "The Peel Collection and the Dutch

School of Painting."

Cole and Van Dyke's "Old Dutch and Flemish Masters." Chapters on Jan Steen and Nicholas Maes.

"The Figure Painters of Holland," by Lord Ronald Gower

(in series of "Illustrated Biographies of the Great Artists").

"The Art of the Netherland Galleries," by David C. Preyer.
This is the last volume in the series entitled "The Art Galleries of Europe," and has been announced and published since the first of these articles were written. The author, who is a Dutchman, has taken advantage of the fact that most of the pictures in the galleries described are by Dutch artists, and by following the chronological order has been able to make of his hand book a history of Dutch painting. Many illustrations enhance the value of the book.

Masters in Art on Jan Steen and Nicholas Maes. 20 cents each.

Bryan's Dictionary of Painters and Engravers. 5 vols. \$6.00 per vol. Useful as reference book. May be seen in most libraries. Other biographical dictionaries and encyclopedias may be consulted for any of the Dutch painters. Brvan's Dictionary is one of the best; but its articles are of uneven merit. Some are excellent, others

too short and inadequate.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

All the painters mentioned in the article of this month are represented in the little penny pictures (The University Prints). Among them are three examples of Brouwer's work, including the Munich "Gamesters Quarreling in an Inn," referred to above. See note on "Illustrations" in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, September, 1908, page 84.

All the painters who have been mentioned in these articles, with the exception of Brouwer, may be studied in public and private galleries in the United States. An example of Brouwer in America is unknown to the writer.

SEARCH AND REVIEW QUESTIONS UPON THE REQUIRED READINGS WILL BE FOUND IN THE ROUND TABLE SECTION AT THE BACK OF THIS MAGAZINE.

(End of C. L. S. C. Required Reading, pages 178-248.)

Famous European Short Stories*

Adoption

By François Coppée

CR twenty years Jean Vignol has been writing continued stories for the popular newspapers, stories filled, as it was proper they should be, with assassinations and children exchanged for one another in their cradles. In his specialty he was no worse than his rivals. If you are ever dangerously ill—which Heaven forfend!—and if you know not how to while away the wearisome hours of a long convalescence read the "Mysteries of Menilmontant," a story of not more than twenty-five thousand lines. In it you will find all the customary ingredients of the literary cuisine I refer to.

The beginning is startling, especially where the scoundrelly Duke of Vieux-Donjon, on coming out of the opera, goes down into a sewer, where he has a rendezvous with an escaped convict of his acquaintance, who is to hand over to him papers which would be fatal to the happiness of the beautiful Marquise des Deux-Poivriéres, who was exchanged in her cradle and so is not really the daughter of a Spaniard of high rank, as all the Faubourg Saint-Germain believes, but of a poor cabinet-maker who was condemned to death in consequence of a legal error, and guillotined in the place of the very convict who has made the uncomfortable and subterranean appointment with the Duke.

You see from this simple illustration that Jean Vignol perfectly understood his calling. And yet the poor fellow was not a success. He had great difficulty in placing his copy and made a miserable livelihood; in the first place, he had bad luck, and besides he was retiring, timid, and did not know how to push, to make his way in the crowd after the American fashion.

Of course he had not begun by writing serials. He still

^{*}Reprinted from "Tales for Christmas," by François Coppée, through the courtesy and by permission of the publishers, Little, Brown & Co., Boston.

kept hidden away in a drawer the two works of his youth which were written at the time when he still had all his hair, together with ambition and belief in his art. Now he no longer hoped that they would ever see the light of day. One was a volume of Elegies, Fleurs de Poison, in which the poet complained of the faithlessness of a young person whom he designated by the romantic pseudonym of Fragoletta and whom he compared to all the lovely women celebrated in song from the most distant antiquity to the present day; although in the cold light of reality the lady's name had been Agatha and she herself a florist's errand girl. The other manuscript, which was more voluminous, contained a horrific drama of the Middle Ages, throughout which persons with hoods and pointed shoes reciprocally attacked one another with two-handed swords and neverending tirades.

Unfortunately, dramas in verse are not edible and fleurs de poison cannot even be used like nasturtiums to adorn a salad. So he had to live up five flights in a little lodging in Belleville which he occupied with his mother, who was crippled with rheumatism and who groaned from morning till night. In order to earn, oh, ever so little money, the poet became a writer of popular stories, just as a would-be artist often takes to photography. Gently and submissively he accepted this work and took great pains with it, as we have said, but without success. It was natural enough, after all, for he was lacking in conviction, in sincerity; he did not take seriously enough his marquises with guillotined cabinet-makers for fathers, and his dukes, who, in fur coats and white cravats, went to walk in sewers.

The editor of the *Petit Proletaire*, who published his tiresome tales, said to him bluntly, "My dear sir, one feels that you don't believe in them;" he therefore paid him very little. The poor fellow, who felt himself superior to such work, suffered and often sighed. But to what purpose? It was his fate, and in order to make the kettle boil he wore himself out inventing more and more extravagant adventures.

At one time, for example, he was two whole quarters behind in his rent, and would have had notice to leave if he had not at the last moment obtained an advance from the editor of the *Petit Proletaire*, who was attracted by a story of which the following is a synopsis of the first installment: "A musician belonging to the Ambigu orchestra, who was really, without suspecting it, the bastard son of an English peer, goes home after the performance and discovers a skeleton in the case of his 'cello.—Continued in our next."

As long as his mother was alive, Jean Vignol, who was a model of filial devotion, had found enough to live for. But during the two years since he had been left alone, with no relatives, few friends, and the habits of a recluse, he found life in his lofty quarters very dull.

He was now a man of forty-seven, with the beginnings of a corporation, a big black beard, a Socratic nose, kindly eyes, and just a topknot of hair on a head that was otherwise quite bald. As his health was not good and his stomach only second-rate, he had even had to give up the consolations of tobacco. Never had the commonplace characters in his tales, the kid-gloved assassins, the virtuous working girls, abused and abandoned by low, cowardly aristocrats, the generous young engineers who, on leaving school, succeed in their work to the extent of obtaining the most honorable decorations and the hand of the young person so often in the course of the story menaced with the most terrible calamities,-never, I say, had all the puppets of his melodramatic show seemed more tiresome to him. poor chap was actually beginning to hate his means of livelihood.

"The deuce!" said he to himself one Christmas eve, as he slowly toiled up to the fifth floor, for he was beginning to be a little asthmatic, "the deuce! The editor now finds that my last plot lacks excitement. I shall have to resuscitate Bouffe-Toujours, the convict, whom I had fall off the Eiffel Tower last week, and furnish him some more victims. Yet even my readiness to oblige will not induce him to raise my pay. I'm tired of it all."

When he got to his room he had various minor annoyances. After a melancholy glance at his pipe-rack, Jean Vignol discovered that his coke fire, which had been well covered with cinders before he went out, was completely extinguished. Before he could light it he had to rake it all out, soiling his hands; his lamp needed a new wick, and then he found that there were but two matches in his box.

"Shades of the dead!" he exclaimed; "I should be in a pretty fix if my fire or my lamp should go out again, for I must spend the night reviving the old convict. But five flights to go down and to come up again for a few matches! I'd rather borrow them of my neighbor."

This neighbor was Mother Mathieu, a poor old woman whose daughter had lately died of childbirth after having been deserted by her husband. The little one was five months old, and the grandmother was bringing up the child by hand. There was real poverty in that wretched room. Vignol, who was a kind man, had occasionally dropped in and left them a small piece of silver, although he had not any too much for himself.

He knocked. "Good-evening, Mother Mathieu. Can you give me a few matches?"

He paused in astonishment on the threshold. By the light of a candle-end the old woman crouched upon the floor, had rolled up and was tying her only mattress. The child was asleep in a wicker cradle near an old bedstead of painted wood.

"Why, Mother Mathieu, what are you doing?"

"You see for yourself, Monsieur Vignol," replied the old woman, whimpering. "I am going to take this to the Mont de Piété, and I must hurry, for the office closes at eight o'clock. They will give me ten francs for it. It is good wool."

"What! Your only mattress?"

"I must. My eldest sister, a widow, too, the one who lives at Lilas and does cleaning, has taken to her bed, and they won't have her at a hospital because she has an incurable disease. So I must help her a little. She has been good

to me. I can sleep a few days on straw; it won't kill me. For I hope to get my mattress back again when pay-day comes. It's the little one that troubles me. It will take me at least an hour to go to the Mont de Piété and to my sister's. I generally give him to the concierge, who is a good woman. But tonight is Christmas Eve, and they are having a family dinner; they are singing now over their dessert. What can I do with the child?"

Jean Vignol's eyes were filled with tears. "Don't, Mother Mathieu. Keep your bed. I still have fifteen francs. Here are ten of them. Run to your sister; and as for the child, leave him with me. He is sleeping like a good fellow; he won't hinder me in my work. Besides, if he begins to make music, I shall not mind rocking and feeding him."

It was the old woman's turn to feel pleased. "Oh, my good kind Monsieur Vignol!" The cradle was placed near the author's writing-table, and Mother Mathieu departed, muttering benedictions. Left alone with the child, Vignol chuckled, as he said to himself, "Here I am installed as dry nurse!"

Quite cheered up by his kind deed, he seated himself near his lamp, and took up his pen. For, hang it! he dared not forget that tomorrow morning he must send his chapter to the printer. The whole story was modified by the resurrection of Bouffe-Toujours. The story-teller was in high spirits. His convict, thrown from the second platform of the Eiffel Tower by an elegant scoundrel, a Viscount decended from the Crusaders and a member of the Jockey lub, catches an iron bar as he falls, and climbs up to a support with the agility of a marmoset. On the day after tomorrow, he will stab three policemen. I hope now that the ubscribers will be supplied with emotions.

Suddenly the baby begins to cry. Jean Vignol, amused this new function, takes up the bottle and gives it to the hild, not so very awkwardly either for a beginner, then ocks him and puts him to sleep again.

But he does not go back to his table. He stands quietly

looking at the poor little thing lying there on the pillow with its tiny cunning hands clasped on its breast.

Cradles! Children! How often he had used them in his absurd stories! How stupid they all seemed to him at this moment, all those improbable tales of children stolen or substituted for one another! A child! Here was the real thing, an orphan, a child of poverty! What was to become of him? The grandmother was old; worn out with toil and privation, she would not last long. Then he would be one of those unfortunates brought up by the thousands by public charity, and who almost always turn out badly. From their number is recruited the army of evil-doers, of future convicts. This poor little urchin, what does life hold in reserve for him? Life, a romance of mystery which grows more incomprehensible with each number and whose uniform ending affords no clue to the problem! Jean Vignol falls into a mournful revery. The poet he dreamed of being when he was young, is not quite dead. Remembering that tomorrow will be Christmas, he thinks, as he stands before the cradle, of the Child who slept upon straw in the stable of Bethlehem. He came into the world to command that men should love one another; and yet, the churches where this doctrine is preached have abounded in the land for two thousand years, evil and poverty still exist alongside of them. materially and morally abandoned child, the child destined by a sort of social fatality to vice and crime, there is a subject for the book Jean Vignol ought to write, pouring into it all the charity, all the tenderness, all the indignation, all the wrath, that is in his heart. But of what is he thinking— Jean Vignol has no talent, never has had; he knows it well. And if at this moment he is choked by tears, they are shed over the misfortunes of this poor child as well as over his own disabilities.

The door opens. In comes Mother Mathieu, quite out of breath. How tired and feeble she seems, and how worn her face, with its multitudinous wrinkles, looks in its black woolen head-dress!

The good fellow gives way to the desire which has taken hold of him during the last few moments.

"Listen, Mother Mathieu; I have been thinking during your absence. While my mother lived I earned enough for two. Now I want to take you in; will you come? You shall look after the house and I will help you with the little one."

The poor woman gives a little cry as she falls upon a chair and covers her face with her hands. As the child, waking up with a start, begins to moan, Jean Vignol takes him from his cradle, looks closely at him, and presses on his soft tender cheek a paternal kiss.

• But that is not all. Do you know that Jean Vignol's generous conduct proved very advantageous to himself? He continued of course to serve the same kind of stuff to his special public, and yet there is in his last story, "The Orphan of Belleville," a certain something not to be found in the others, and which made even the grisettes sob. The circulation of the *Petit Proletaire* increased, as did also the author's pay.

The story was reproduced in several provincial sheets; and when, not long ago, Jean Vignol went to pay his dues at the Society of Authors, he had the joy of his life. The most illustrious, the foremost novelist of his time touched him on the shoulder as they stood side by side at the desk. saying "Monsieur Vignol, I have read two or three of your stories lately and find in them touches about children that are extremely fine, sincere, affecting."

The poor man blushed up to his ears.

"I thank you, my dear master," he replied, stammering with pleasure. "It is because—you see—now—when I write anything about children—I am working from nature."

German Songs and Song Writers in the Struggle With Napoleon

By M. Wilma Stubbs.

THE years 1806-13 are a dark page in German history. The victories of Jena and Auerstadt had cast the spell of Napoleon's genius over the kingdom of the Great Frederick. With half her lands torn from her, her taxation enormously increased to support foreign troops, her commerce blockaded, and her means of defense taken away, little national life was left to Germany.

The disastrous retreat from Moscow, however, furnished the opportunity for which all patriotic Germans had been waiting. A coalition was formed with Russia, England, and Sweden, and on the third of February, 1813, came the memorable call to arms. It was answered as only the loyal sons of the Fatherland could answer it. Officers gave up their salaries, and women brought their savings to fit out companies of volunteers. Patriotism became contagious.

It is to this period of stress that German literature owes some of its most popular lyrics. These songs, glowing with patriotism, went ringing through the land. Sung everywhere, by old and young, rich and poor, they were a mighty rallying force. It is indeed almost impossible to estimate the importance of the part they played in Germany's struggle for freedom.

There is perhaps no finer example of this patriotic spirit than the martyr-poet, Theodor Körner. Nor is it difficult for us today to understand how the springs of this patriotism were fed. Körner's father counted among his intimate friends the poet Schiller, and it was in the garden-house of the Körner villa at Lösschwitz that "Don Carlos" was completed. No wonder then that the boy grew up with the same hope for a united Germany which we find so often expressed in Schiller's writings but which

neither poet was destined to live to see fulfilled. Of the home life and its influence upon the lad we may judge from Arndt's brief but suggestive description of the elder Körner. "Körner was an eminent man," he writes, "highly educated and very scientific, equal in knowledge to the best German scholars, and superior to most in faithful devotion to his country."

At the outbreak of the struggle Körner was living in Vienna. Although only twenty-two, he was already an author of promise and had been appointed poet of the court-theater. Despite these brilliant prospects, Körner thus wrote to his parents. "Germany is about to rise. The Prussian eagle by the beating of its mighty wings arouses once more in all true hearts the hope for German liberty. My soul sighs for the Fatherland. Let me prove myself her worthy son. I must forth and oppose my breast to the raging storm. What! shall I be content to sing my comrades' triumphs?"

He at once enlisted in Lützow's free corps, and who can tell how largely it was due to his battle songs and to his own inspiring and helpful presence that this corps became the terror of the enemy? It had been with the solemn words of his hymn "Dem Herrn allein die Ehre" (To God alone the Glory) sounding in their ears that the soldiers had gone forth from the consecration service in the little church at Rogau, and it was to the battle cry of his "Wilde Jagd" that the fearless deeds of the "black troopers" were performed in the days that followed. With the prophetic vision of the poet he seems to have foreseen the fate which awaited him.

"Ye friends that love us look up with glee. The night is scattered, the dawn we see, Though we with our life's blood have gained it."

His leisure moments were all spent in pouring forth in verse the love of Fatherland, and these songs, set to popular airs, were sung about the camp fires at night, stirring in the hearts of his soldier comrades a patriotic zeal that sent them undaunted into the midst of the enemy. He had risen to the rank of adjutant to the commander of the corps when he was treacherously wounded at Kitzen, but succeeded in escaping and recovered for a few more months of service. Returning to battle only to fall in a skirmish near Gadebusch, he served his Fatherland perhaps even more truly in dying than he could have done in life. His comrades gathered about his bier and swore to avenge the country he died to save. Over his grave near Wöbbelin has been erected a monument of iron with the design of a lyre and sword and upon the oak which overshadows it are these words from one of his own poems.

"Forget not the loyal dead."

One of his most famous songs and one that still inspires the German soldier, "Das Schwertlied," was composed only a few hours before his death, and it is said that he was reading it to a friend when the call to battle came. It is written in the form of a dialogue between himself and his faithful sword, which he addresses as his bride. We will give it in part.

"Wohlauf, ihr kecken Streiter, Wohlauf, ihr deutschen Reiter, Wird Euch das Herz nicht warm? Nehm't's Liebchen in den Arm.

Nun lasst das Liebchen singen, Dass helle Funken springen, Der Hochzeitmorgen graut, Hurrah, du Eisenbraut!"

Then forward, valiant fighters!
And forward, German riders!
And when the heart grows cold,
Let each his love enfold.
Hurrah!

Now let the loved one sing; Now let the clear blade ring, Till the bright sparks shall fly, Heralds of victory!

-From the translation of Lord F. H. Gower.

To another poet, Ernst Moritz Arndt, Germany is indebted for her national song, "The German Fatherland." His service, though spared the tragic ending of Körner's was no less self-sacrificing. Instead of leading him to the battle-field, it forced him into exile and separation from the little son doubly dear for his own sake and the mother's of whose life the boy had been the price.

A native of the island of Rügen, which was then a dependency of Sweden, Arndt's early loyalty was divided between that country and Germany and it was not until after the disasters of 1805-6 that he definitely chose his fatherland. "My Swedish predilections," he writes of that time, "were once and forever dead. The Swedish heroes were nothing any more to me but legends of the past. When Germany through its discords had fallen to nothing, I recognized its true unity." Henceforth the Fatherland had no more devoted servant than this modest but able poet-patriot.

In 1806 Arndt, who for some time had been connected with the ancient university of Greifswald, received the appointment of professor extraordinary of philosophy; but the publication soon after of the first part of the "Geist der Zeit" (Spirit of the Age), which was, as he says, "an expression of manly anger at the destruction of German and European honor and freedom," and the influx of foreign troops made it unsafe for him to remain longer in Germany, and he fled to Sweden.

During the years of his exile which were spent in Russia, he was the trusted assistant and confidant of Stein in the gigantic efforts of the latter for the reorganization of the administration and resources of the Fatherland. True statesman that he was, Stein realized the need of an appeal to the emotional nature in breaking the spell which Napoleon's seemingly unconquerable genius had cast over Europe. "Herr Arndt," he says in announcing to the Emperor Alexander the poet's arrival in St. Petersburg, "must be immediately employed in composing songs and writings which may be distributed among the Germans to

correct their ideas and to inspire them with enthusiasm," Nor were Stein's expectations disappointed. Pamphlets, poems, and songs followed each other in quick succession.

It was, however, the Wars of Liberation that called forth his most popular and lasting lyrics. Napoleon's retreat from Moscow occurred in the late autumn of 1812 and in the first days of January, 1813, Stein left St. Petersburg, taking Arndt with him. With the severity of the Russian winter, the primitive means of travel, and the scenes of horror which the retreating army had left along its line of march, we can imagine the journey as far from pleasant for Arndt even though it meant a return to the land of his adoption.

The remainder of the winter was spent in Königsberg, the capital of Old Prussia, and it was here that his immortal lyric, "Was ist des Deutschen Vaterland?" was composed. Arndt thus modestly and briefly chronicles the success of this poem. "It was here in the midst of the universal excitement which was driving the whole nation to combat, that my "Song of the German Fatherland" sprang into existence, which has been sung in later days in Germany, but at last probably, like other songs, will have had its day." Despite this modest prophecy it is still, after the lapse of nearly a century, one of the favorite songs of the united German nation and vies in popularity with the "Wacht am Rhein." So familiar is the poem that we need recall only a few of its stanzas.

Was ist des Deutschen Vaterland? Ist's Preussenland? Ist's Schwabenland? Ist's, wo am Rhein die Rebe glüht? Ist's, wo am Belt doe Möwe ziet? O nein, O nein, O nein!

Was ist des Deutschen Vaterland? So nenne endlich mir das Land? "So weit die deutsche Zunge klingt, Und Gott im Himmel Lieder singt!" Das soll es sein! Das, wackrer Deutscher, soll es sein! Das ganze Deutschland soll es sein! O Gott, vom Himmel sieh' darein, Und gieb uns echten deutschen Mut, Dass wir es lieben treu und gut. Das soll es sein! Das ganze Deutschland soll es sein!

Where is the German's Fatherland? Is't Schwabia? Is't the Prussians's land? Is't where the grape glows on the Rhine? Where sea-gulls skim the Baltic brine? O, no! more great, more grand, Must be the German's Fatherland.

Where is the German's Fatherland?

Name me at length that mighty land.

"Where 'er resounds the German tongue,
Where 'er its hymns to God are sung."

Be this the land,
Brave German, this thy Fatherland!

All Germany, then, the land shall be;
Watch o'er it, God and grant that we
With German hearts in deed and thought
May love it truly as we ought.
Be this the land—
All Germany shall be the land!
From translation by A. Baskerville.

Not long after this appeared the little volume "Songs for Soldiers," which contains many of his most famous war lyrics. One of these "Der Gott de Eisen wachsen liess" so well expresses the spirit of the time that we quote its opening stanza.

"The God who made the iron ore Will have no man a slave;
To arm the man's right hand for war The sword and the spear he gave.
And he gives to us a daring heart,
And for burning words the breath
To tell the foeman that we fear
Dishonor more than death."

Many of his songs were modeled upon earlier popular songs. Thus in his description of the battle of-Leipzig he

uses the form of the old German gleemen's songs, alternate questions and answers of one waiting for news from the battle and the courier who has brought the tidings.

"Whence cometh thou in thy garments red? Soiling the hue of the green grass plain?"
"I come from the field where brave men bled, Red from the gore of the knightly slain, Repelling the crash of the fierce assailing; Mothers and brides may be sorely wailing, For I am red."

"Speak, comrade, speak, and tell me true,
How call ye the land of the fateful fight?"
"At Leipzig the murd'rous fierce review
Dimmed with full tear-drops many a sight;
The balls like winter snowflakes flying,
Stifled the breath of thousands dying,
By Leipzig town."

"And who in the strife won the hard-fought day,
And who took the prize with iron hand?"
"God scattered the foreigner like the sea-spray,
God drove off the foreigner like the light sand;
Many thousands cover the green-sward lying,
The rest like hares to the four winds flying,
With Napoleon, too."

"God bless thee, comrade, thank thee well,
A tale is this the full heart to cheer,
Sounds like a cymbal of heaven swell,
A story of strife and a story of cheer.
Leave the widows and brides to their wail of sorrow,
We'll sing a glad song for full many a morrow,
Of the Leipzig fight."

From Seeley's Life of Arndt.

Among other poets of this time may be mentioned Friedrich Rückert, whose career opened with the publication in 1814 of the war-songs entitled "Sonnets in Armor," and Max von Schenkendorf, who, though having the use of but one arm, enlisted at the call of his country, fighting valiantly at the battle of Leipzig. One of Schenkendorf's poems, the "Rhine Song" is in part as follows:

"The sound how clearly ringing
Of that dear old German name!
'T is heard where men are singing
To spread abroad the fame
Of one whose ancient line is royal
A king to whom all hearts are loyal;
It cheers the heart like wine
To hear that name—the Rhine!"

But he whose name stands first on the roll of Germany's illustrious poets and whose command reads "Ehret die Leider" (Honor the Song)-how shall we account for his strange silence throughout all this time of struggle? Shall we say that its only explanation is to be found in Goethe's admiration for the greatness of Napoleon's genius, and in the hopelessness with which he viewed any attempt to break the almost magical power of the Emperor. It is true that Arndt quotes Goethe as saying "Shake your fetters if you will; you cannot break them. The man is too great for you." But shall we not also remember that Goethe is the apostle of an aesthetic universality; that in his thought "science and art belong to the world, and the barriers of nationality vanish before them?" Yet he is loyal to his country believing in the future of its people. "But the right time," he says, "no human eye can foresee, no human power hasten on. To us if is given, everyone according to his talents, inclinations, and position to increase, strengthen, and spread general culture." And thus it comes about that while Arndt and Körner are fighting out with sword and pen the issues of nationalism, Goethe, in accordance with his talents and inclinations, is engaged in writing the "Westöstlicher Divan" songs in the cause of a more widespread culture.

The value which the Germans place upon the work of those who responded so nobly in the hour of the nation's need is attested by the various memorials which are destined to keep alive the memory of their heroic deeds, Thus in the Körner museum at Dresden the visitor is shown the lyre and sword which in the hand of the poet

became so great a force in the accomplishment of freedom, and, more valuable still, the very note-book, bloodstained, in which his war-songs were written for the inspiration of his comrades of the battlefield. Here, too, is the portrait, painted upon ivory, of her whom Körner had chosen to be his bride, the fair Antonie Adamberger. At both Dresden and Leipzig the anniversaries of the poet's birth and death are celebrated every year by the reproduction of his "Toni," "Rosamunde," and "Zriny." To Arndt, "the Blücher of German lyrics," statues have been created at Schoritz, his birthplace, and at Bonn, where he lies buried under an oak tree planted by his own hands. But the most lasting memorial of all is to be found in the devotion of Germany's sons and daughters to the memory of her poets, and in the popularity which many of these songs still enjoy. For

> "As far as sounds the German tongue And German hymns to God are sung,"

so far the names of these heroic singers are known and honored.



A Dutch Poetess: Tesselschade Visscher

NE does not usually associate the housewives of Holland with literary pursuits. Their genius would seem to be largely domestic, exemplifying Kaiser William's epigram that the sphere of woman should embrace, to the exclusion of all other interests, Kirche, Kuchen, and Kinder-church, cookery, and children. Yet there was once a period in Dutch literary history when talented poetesses were not unknown, singers who combined decorous versifying with the careful fulfillment of household duties. Of such was Tesselschade Visscher, born in 1594 and dying in 1649, the friend of virtually all the great writers who flourished in Holland during the first half of the seventeenth century, Hooft, Huyghens, Barlaeus and Vondel, and the center and hostess of a delightful group that embraced all that was best of the artistic genius and social refinement in the noblest period of Dutch history.

Mr. Edmund Gosse, in his volume "The Literature of Northern Europe" has devoted an essay to the celebration of the admirable Tesselschade, not in truth, by reason alone of her literary merit, but because she was in a sense the inspiration of the best minds of her time, the adoration of poets, who celebrated her in their verses and vainly importuned her to marriage. From this group of admirers it is impossible to disassociate her; nor in a review of the literary triumphs of her day is it desirable to consider individuals separately: all were linked in the common purpose of creating a Dutch literature; united they express the renascence of letters in their age.

In youth Tesselchade Visscher was favored of the gods. From her father she inherited a pronounced literary bent; she was born to wealth and position; and she was, as well, beautiful in body, and in disposition, charming. Born in 1594, the youngest of three daughters, Tesselschade came to maturity in the most gracious period of Dutch history, the time of peace which followed upon the long struggle with Spain, a time when Holland was one of the most powerful nations of Europe, rich, successful, and full of vigor, which, temporarily turned from the pursuits of war, was directed largely into artistic channels. This is the flowering time of Dutch art, not only in painting, though the period is that of the greatest triumphs of Dutch painters, but, as well, in literature.

Her father, Roemer Visscher, poet, was one of a group which sought by the study of the classics, to which the Renaissance had stirred the interest of the cultured classes, to stimulate the growth of a national literature. Tesselschade grew up, therefore, in a studious and accomplished society and was doubly fortunate in witnessing and participating in the literary revival which her father and his friends had, by their enthusiasm for classical literatures, inspired in the young writers of the day.

As may readily be imagined the three gifted daughters of Roemer Visscher were educated far beyond the needs of girls dedicated to a merely domestic career. It is recorded by a contemporary that they "were practised in very sweet accomplishments: they could play music, paint, write, and engrave on glass, make poems, cut emblems, embroider all manner of fabrics, and swim well, which last thing they had learned in their father's garden, where there was a canal with water, outside the city." They were not, however, trained to read Latin and were remarkably free from all pedantic affectations. The evidence goes to show that they were all sensible, gifted, and attractive girls, Tesselschade,' the youngest, surpassing her sisters in genius and beauty.

The family lived in Amsterdam and their home was a

social and artistic center. Among their friends and frequent visitors was Pieter Hooft a young Italianate Dutchman who wrote pastoral poetry after the classical manner. His early poetry is said not to exhibit characteristically Dutch qualities for it is overimitative, but he is said to remind the English reader of Spenser, the poet who was almost his contemporary. Vondel, destined to become the greatest of Dutch poets, the dramatist to whom Milton was indebted for many fine passages of "Paradise Lost," was also an early friend of the family, becoming, it may be, years afterward when he was a widower and Tesselschade a widow, the unsuccessful suitor for her hand. Brederoo, rough and unpolished but highly gifted, one of the greatest of Dutch dramatists, was also one of the circle, as, too, were Jan Starter, a lyric poet of English descent, Laurens Reael, a poet who became a famous colonial governor, and Samuel Coster, a dramatist, writer of comedies and farces. further name should be mentioned, that of Constantine Huvghens, a diplomat and poet, who, in the estimation of Mr. Gosse is unrivalled in his mastery of poetic form among the poets of Holland.

These are the chief figures in a group of famous writers who for long periods were intimately associated with the famous sisters. Tesselschade was the queen of the circle. To her laudatory verses were addressed; with her these famous writers corresponded when abroad. She seems to have been, alike, a friend and inspiring genius, a poetic goddess to whom all good works might be worthily inscribed. Nor did Tesselschade's prosaic marriage at the age of thirty to a middle aged, prosperous, and retired seaman destroy these pleasant relations. Her admirers saw rather less of her than formerly but their ardor of admiration appears to have been unquenched.

Tesselschade's poetry is not, says her critic, Mr. Gosse, to be compared with the works of the great poets whom she owned as friends. Yet she was distinctly gifted and the following verses—among her best—admirably translated by

Mr. Gosse, show her to have been a graceful and pleasing writer. The poems are after the sugared manner of pastoral imitations but they are not the less pleasing for their pretty artificiality:

THE COMPLAINT OF PHYLLIS

My sheep, who hunger satisfied
With fragrant thyme, now turn aside
To these rose-petals, from my crown;
They brought their scent to sacrifice,
And ravished heart and soul with spice,
Whene'er to dance I was led down.

'Tis better that the blossoms feed My lambkins which I, dying lead, Than that, undone, dishonored, Between my groans and sighs of woe, Bathed in my hot tears' burning flow, They, faultless, wither on my head.

Ah! chew them small with little nips,
Innocent flock! but when your lips
Are weary, and you fall on sleep,
Muse on the death of my delight,
That bids me toss in sad despite
My rosy garland to my sheep.

For you were near when faith and troth Philander swore, who breaks them both, And lewdly courts another lass! For you were near, when his sweet words Bound my weak heart, and heaven records How tender and how false he was!

Yet health, and not revenge be found!
Give balsam for my aching wound,
Give balsam from the heavenly store!
But if revenge your will decree,
O gods, chastise, but let it be
The prick of conscience, and no more.

My sorrow, sure, will make him burn, My passion to his passion turn, His passion turned again to me; And so, once more, as once hath been, No happier pair on earth be seen Then Phyllis and Philander be.

I. THE WILD SONGSTER.

Praise thou the nightingale,
Who with her joyous tale
Doth make thy heart rejoice,
Whether a singing plume she be, or viewless winged voice;

Whose warblings, sweet and clear,
Ravish the listening ear
With joy, as upward float
The throbbing liquid trills of her educated throat:

Whose accent pure and ripe
Sounds like an organ pipe,
That holdeth divers songs,
And with one tongue alone sings like a score of tongues.

The rise and fall again
In clear and lovely strain
Of her sweet voice and shrill,
Outclamours with its song the singing springing rill.

A creature whose great praise
Her rarity displays,
Seeing she only lives
A month in all the year to which her song she gives.

But this thing sets the crown
Upon her high renown,
That such a little bird as she
Can harbour such a strength of clamorous harmony.

II. THE TAME SONGSTER.

But, wild-wood songster, cease!

Draw breath and hold thy peace!

Thy notes make no sweet noise

That can compete for tone with Rosamunda's voice,

Who hath so dear an art
Of whispering to the heart
In measured plaintive sobs,
That, bound in friendship's net, like a snared bird it throbs.

Whose cunning voice instils

Deep wisdom, while it fills

The minds of those who hear,

And makes the soul leap up into the listening ear.

In moanings low she dies,
And then with tender sighs,
In amorous soft conceits
A world of various tongues she nimbly counterfeits.

No weariness we know,
Though from her throat may flow
Much song; new pleasures high
Still charm the insatiate ear with each fresh harmony.

Here rare rapture lives
That fitful music gives;
No feathered song so gay
As this, that summer gives nor winter takes away.

The latter years of Tesselschade's life do not read so happily as those of her admired youth and amiable middle age. Her friends were always faithful to her; she never attered in their esteem. But family misfortune and, as well, the ravages of time in the circle of her intimates, darkened her last days. Her husband and eldest daughter died suddenly of smallpox in 1634, leaving her alone but for her young daughter. During the years of widowhood which followed she sought consolation by writing and translating poetry and did at this period some of her best literary work. Her style, it is said, shows in this later work the influence of Vondel with whom she was intimately acquainted. Despite his love for her, however, she remained single. Nor could the entreaties of other woers, of whom there seem to have been several, prevail upon her to alter her way of life.

In 1642 her friend Reael died; another friend, the poet and historian Hooft, died in 1647; Barlaeus the poet, a former suitor for her hand, died in 1648. Shortly after, her beautiful daughter died and Tesselschade did not long survive, dying in 1649. Of the great writers who make this period, the first half of the seventeenth century, famous above all others in the history of Dutch literature, but three lingered long on the scene. Jacob Cats died in 1660; Vondel in 1679, Huyghens in 1687.

The Vesper Hour*

By Chancellor John H. Vincent

E withdraw from the circle of friends, from the cares of the house, from the demands of business that we may first of all command ourselves, commune with ourselves, and in the silence and solitude attempt to commune with God.

This degree of self-control is of inestimable importance. Without it there can be little hope of access to God. The eye of the astronomer must be fixed at the opening of the glass through which he would gaze upon the star in the far off heaven. He must hold still. There must be no wavering, no trembling, no throb of curiosity to look otherwhere. And so with the soul that would look by faith into the depths of Deity.

This preparatory act of one who truly desires to worship is the first as it is the most important step to be taken in the approach to the invisible Deity. Therefore the inestimable value of actual retirement into a place of absolute silence. "Enter into thy closet," said the Master. "Shut thy door....Pray to thy Father in secret." Sometimes men who have perfect self-command may be absolutely alone in a crowd. This power of abstraction has its value. It may be cultivated. We know people who have mastered the secret of self-withdrawal and concentration. But this self control is exceptional, and the most of us who would be alone with God must literally withdraw from the bustle of business, the activities of the world and the presence of other personalities, and in the secret place of prayer prepare to think of God as here and now present.

And this is the second step in the act of prayer: The realization of the divine presence. As the atmosphere is here and now present so really is God "in this place." As the light fills the whole sphere of my present horizon so God as Light for the inner life is veritably present. Of

^{*}The Vesper Hour, contributed to The Chautauguan each month by Chancellor Vincent, continues the nunistries of Chautauqua's Vesper Service throughout the year.

this there is no doubt. There must be no doubt. Let me say it over and over: God is here. God is here. God is here. I may really at this time and place become conscious of faith, of the actual immediateness of God. I think the thought. With a measure of faith (perhaps a feeble faith) I accept, I believe, I rest in, I resolve that I will rest in the reality of God and the reality of God's presence.

The actual realization of this great reality—God's personal nearness here and now—must be the starting point of all prayer that will prove to be prayer, prayer in earnest, the "prayer of faith." Therefore at this point take time to think, to remember, to reason, to recall and to quote the words of Holy Writ which teach the divine omnipresence.

If one can do no better at this point he may at least assume as a tentative proposition, held by an act of the will, the fact of God and the fact of God's presence here and now. He may risk everything on it and put into words his purpose: I will believe that God is now here. Oh God I will do here and now open my whole being to Thee.

This is an approach to the Diety. It is an honest effort to believe. It is the only thing a man can do who has as yet but a slight faith in the reality and in the nearness of God. This much any man can do. This much every man ought to do. It is the reaching out as of a little child's hand in the dark who is in quest of his father's hand. Would any human Father refuse the outstretched hand to such a pitiful appeal?

You may be positively sure that God is no less merciful, loving and eager to help His children who cry out to Him in the darkness.

And now that I am intent on seeking communication with God what is my next step? I am here. God is here. I am feeling after Him. He knows that as really as I know it. He also knows, as I ought to try to know, the motive uppermost and dominant in my mind for seeking Him. O God: Open my inner eyes to see, that I may thoroughly know myself. Open my eyes that I may to some extent realize the fact of my great sinfulness and unworthiness. I

might fill pages with confession of wanderings and wrongs, all of which cast great barriers between my soul and Thee. But what Thou demandest is a loathing and a forsaking of sin. And what Thou hast provided is a most merciful and gentle Saviour in Jesus the Christ. To Him I turn with genuine repentance and with a child-like faith. In Him I will rest.

This then I have honestly done: I have confessed my wanderings. Now I will try to forget everything that tends to hide the face of the good God from my gaze. I will believe. As God has promised to "forget" so will I seek to forget as I have believed His promise to forgive.

It is neither sane nor safe to be forever dwelling on "the past." It is not well for the pilgrim to the heights to be constantly turning towards the valley he has left and the path he has trodden. His thought and resolve and watchword must be "onward." Let the past go. "Let the dead past bury its dead." Forget Yesterday. Let your soul turn towards the summits rising yonder into the sunlit sky.

Therefore Thou God of the Future: Receive my prayer. Give me grace to hope and strength to resolve. Fill me with confidence in Thy memory. Help me to see the smile of forgiving love on Thy face, and to feel in my inmost soul the assurance of Thy holy purpose concerning me. I will believe. I will rest in the exceeding great and precious promises of the Word which Thou hast put on record for my encouragement. Thou mightest have said "I can never forgive one who has dared to deny me, or to forsake me or to forget me for a moment." But Thou hast not said this. Nay, Thou hast rather said "Not until seven times but until seventy times seven." What wonderful words they are, and they are from the lips of no less an authority than Jesus the Christ. A disciple one day said to him "If my brother sin against me seven times shall I forgive him?" It sometimes seems to me, as I recall that question and the Master's answer that Jesus must have smiled with a smile of matchless grace and beauty as He gave that reply: "Not until seven times but until seventy times seven."

In prayer we must always remember the boundless love and tenderness equal to the almightiness of the Lord to whom we pray. On a hot day we go to the hydrant for a drink. A cup is filled and handed to us. But we forget as we drink from the cup the inexhaustible supply stored in the great reservoirs and back of them in the springs and rivers and lakes among the mountains, and above them in the treasuries of the clouds and the atmosphere. Thus our God's resources are inexhaustible. And He loves to give and still more He loves to see us take.

The greatest peril of a soul is selfishness. One may seek from God gifts of grace to deliver him from unworthy and selfish motives. But our eyes may be turned toward God while our thoughts and desires are at the same time fixed on our own unworthy selves. Wrong motives may sway our lives, create our ideals, and be at the root of even our Religion. Poor mortals we are and even in our devotion we may sing of heaven and live for earth. We may cause our lips to tremble with words of devotion our hearts the meantime intent on self and selfish aims.

It is just here we must begin the conflict. And it is never safe to fancy that we have ended it. And again it is not well to dwell too much on the fact of selfishness. We may not ignore it, but we must not feed self by thinking too much about self.

The safe rule is to turn from our poor human nature to the God of all grace. Forget self. Lose ourselves in God. Think of Him. Recall His attributes, the standards of life He has set before us and the exceeding great and precious promise He has put on record for our encouragement.

He is a wise man who has his appointed hours for devotion, when he forces himself to look well into the motives of his life, to find out what he loves best, to discover his weak points, to accept the criticisms of frank friends who are in the habit of making remarks which are both candid

and correct. Our religion is of little value if it does not discover our weak points and the features of personal character which are out of harmony with religious profession. But it is a very unprofitable type of religious interest if it does not drive us to the God of all grace for strength and inspiration.

It is wonderful to turn the pages of revelation to see what warrant we have from God Himself for going to Him with a childlike confidence asking Him for the things we need. He could not, even we could not put into human language larger offers than in the Holy Scriptures are made to the soul that trusts in God. He gives us carte blanche. His promises cover everything we could possibly ask. He fills the pages of the great book with illustrations of historic characters who believing in God have gone to Him, trusted in Him, committed all their ways to Him and have found Him true to His own word.

Let us accustom ourselves to think of the Infinite God as our Father and with a mother's love and fidelity, and we shall have more faith in the doctrine of prayer and shall be encouraged to look directly to God without doubt or challenge.

There is a precious little volume compiled in 1750 by a clergyman in England, the Rev. Samuel Clarke, D. D., with an introduction by the distinguished Dr. Isaac Watts, a volume packed with the "sweet assuring promises of Scripture." The copy which I have was published by Lane & Scott in 1850. It was used by my good and devout mother and I have made it for years a companion. Our Readings for the current month shall be from these choice promises of God. They are as true now as when they were first recorded and we may ourselves experiment with them. It is not necessary to offer any expositions whatever. They are the words of God designed to give souls confidence in Him under all circumstances. Let us, remembering our need and believing in the power and love and trustworthiness of our God, look at these promises, accept them as real and by faith make the treasures they offer our own:

The Lord God is a sun and shield; the Lord will give grace and glory; no good thing will he withold from them that walk uprightly. Ps. 84, 11.

He that followeth after righteousness and mercy, findeth life,

righteousness and honor. Prov. 21, 22.

He that spared not his own Son, but delivered him up for us all, how shall he not with him also freely give us all things Rom. 8, 32.

All things are yours, whether Paul, or Apollos, or Cepas, or the world, or life, or death, or things present, or things to come, all are yours. Cor. 3, 21, 22.

Godliness is profitable unto all things; having the promise of the life that now is, and of that which is to come. Tim. 4, &.

Seek ye first the kingdom of God, and his righteousness, and all these things shall be added unto you. Matt. 6, 33.

The name of the Lord is a strong tower; the righteous runneth into it and is safe. Prov. 18, 10.

He shall not be afraid of evil tidings; his heart is fixed trusting in the Lord. Psalm 112, 7.

There is forgiveness with thee, that thou mayest be feared. He shall redeem Israel from all his iniquities. Psalm 130, 4, 8.

He was manifested to take away our sin. John 3, 5.

Thou shalt make thy prayer unto him, and he shall hear thee. Job 22, 27.

Ask and it shall be given you. Seek and ye shall find; knock and it shall be opened unto you. For every one that asketh receiveth; and he that seeketh findeth; and to him that knocketh it shall be opened. Matt. 7. 7, 8.

If ye then being evil know how to give good gifts to your children how much more shall your Father which is in heaven give good things to them that ask him. Matt. 7. 11.

I will be a Father unto you and ye shall be my sons and daughters, saith the Lord Almighty. 2 Cor. 6.18.

Now unto him that is able to do exceeding abundantly above all that we ask or think, according to the power that worketh in us, unto him be the glory in the church and in Christ Jesus unto all generations forever and ever. Amen. Ephesians 3.20, 21.

The Promises I have here quoted are about three pages of the little volume collated by Dr. Samuel Clarke. The book itself contains more than 230 pages.

Let us study the promises of the Holy Scriptures more than we have done and let us believe and apply and test them.



OFFICERS OF CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

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What else is wisdom? What of man's endeavor Or God's high grace so lovely and so great? To stand from fear set free to breathe and wait, To hold a hand uplifted over Hate And shall not Loveliness be loved forever?—Euripides.

Once in a while a reader with, perchance, memories of the spare-the-rod type of school days, seems to revert to old ideals. To such readers anything savoring of school has a flavor of fear about it. There is one beaten track and they must walk in it. Woe to them if they wander. So when they write out the review questions on the year's reading, that nemesis of their childhood, "the correct answer," looms up before them, and fearing to depart from what the book says, whole phrases are laboriously copied from the text book where only a brief statement in their own words was requested. The psychologists are reminding us today that fear is one of our greatest enemies. We are ourselves only as we are free from that fear which dominates. The C. L. S. C. question paper was never intended to usurp the place of the inexorable school master of other days. The Chautauqua reader is a free personality. He reads and thinks and enjoys according to his best light and reason. He is openminded and tries to learn from others. but no one should do his thinking for him. So the review paper says "Consult such helps as you need but use your own language in answer." In other words, this paper is to help you recall some of the interesting things which you have read. See if you can get the idea and state it in your own words. If so, you may be sure that it is clear to your own mind and that your faculties have been freshened by exercise." Eighty per cent. of answers clearly stated in the reader's own language is infinitely more worth while than one hundred in the words of the book; the eighty have educated him.

THE CLASS OF 1912.

Members of the new class have been organizing Circles and becoming accustomed to their duties as Chautauquans. These, as even the newest Chautauquan knows, are not arduous, and though many 1912's will be "trained in" by old Circles. others will start out on their untried paths alone or in groups and find their way as securely as those earliest of adventurers, the Class of '82, who set sail in 1878. Some of the 1012's at Chautaugua started a Round Robin letter as a means of strengthening their class relationships, and the secretary writes that she hopes soon to give some news of this venture. As suggested in the October magazine. members who would like to belong to a Round Robin group may report to the Treasurer, Miss Julia H. Douglas, 170 West 59th St., New York City. It is interesting to note in the following letters, the spirit in which the members of 1912 are taking up their work:

Columbus, Ohio. I am a member of the 1912 C. L. S. C. Class—The Shakespeare Class, having enrolled last August at Lincoln Park, Kansas. I wish to join one of the Round Robin groups and so am sending in my name, with wishes for the best success of the class as well as the Institution as a whole.

Ladonia, Texas. Last Saturday afternoon at my home I organized a Circle of twelve members, each enthusiastic over taking the four years course. Noticing your request in the Round Table I send my address and would like to join one of the Round Robin groups.

A member of the class writes from Ohio that she spent July and August at Chautauqua, had repeated invitations to become a member, failed to join and then returned home to repent, so her own five dollars and an extra fee for a friend who joins with her have wiped out the



Protestant Church in Mercedes, Argentine Republic.

score. Others hovering on the brink of 1912 might do well to follow her example.



A 1908 CHAUTAUQUAN IN THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

"With what pleasure I write in reply to your letter of July 7 and should have done so earlier had time permitted. It requires a month for our letters to reach us, and although we grow somewhat accustomed to reading news a month old, we sometimes wonder what is really happening now.

"First of all, let me say that it is not the Class of 1911 that can claim me as a member, for I am now awaiting my diploma as a graduate of the present year (1908). For three years prior to my marriage I was a member of the Outlook Circle, Mount Vernon, New York, and the study was doubly interesting because of the delightful meetings we had. This past year's work has been done entirely in South America, as we arrived here in August, 1907, and naturally Chautauqua reading had to suffer because of the time spent in studying Spanish. For the first six months only, we were in Buenos Aires, Mr. Bauman being assistant pastor of the American church there. This is a large church, entirely English, and differing in no way from the churches at home. Buenos Aires is a city of over a million inhabitants, very progressive and modern in every way, with excellent street car system, railways, etc. There is a large English-speaking population (but comparatively few

SOCIAL TIDSKRIFT

SEPTEMBER.

1908

Chautauqua.

T.

Ett folkbildningens centrum.



Fågeiperspektiv av Chautauqua.

Bildning står högt i kurs i Förenta Staterna. En varas pris be-tingas av dess sällsynthet, och bildningens pris sattes under de tider - tider, som i västern ännu icke äro förbi - då människornas hela kraft fordrades för landets materiella byggande, och den intellektuella utvecklingen nödvändigtvis av de flesta måste försakas. Offret var för mången kännbart, och sålunda se vi fordom nya Englands kolonister, trots en mödosam och oviss nationell existens grunda lärdomsmöten för att åt sina efterkommande bereda boksynthetens fröjder, och i våra dagar fattiga immigranter göra till sina strävandens mål att kunna sända söner och döttrar till högskolor och seminarier. Den kulturblomstring, som historien lär oss ofelbart följer på en nations enastående materiella framgång. skall helt visst ej utebli för Amerika. Är det för djärvt att se dess annalkande i den bildningstörst, som härute nått en omfattning ojämförligt större än i andra länder, och som nu med en länge undertryckt naturkrafts våldsamhet bryter ut och fordrar tillfredsställelse? Den beundransvärda biblioteksrörelsen är ett av svaren på detta krav, folkbildningsorganisationen är ett annat. Ty om också de högskolebildades antal i Förenta Staterna är storre än i Social Tidakriit. 26

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Americans), and one might easily imagine himself in one of our large cities at home. Dwelling houses, however, are quite different, and lack many of our home comforts. What we missed more than anything was stoves. Although this is a semi-tropical climate it gets decidedly cold and damp in winter, but the houses are built without chimneys or provision of any kind for heating, and with their large, airy rooms and open patios are like refrigerators. People wear their overcoats and wraps from the time they arise until they retire at night!

"In February we were placed in charge of the church at Mercedes, with a Spanish and an English congregation, the latter being very small, as there are very few English residents. You can imagine that it was not easy after six months in the country, to take charge of a Spanish congregation, but it was excellent practice and we soon became accustomed to the Spanish ways and tongue. The attendance at church services Thursdays and Sundays averages about seventy-five and at Sunday school one hundred. We have a pretty little church and a large parsonage, besides a school and orphanage here in Mercedes. I enclose a post card showing the church building. Our Spanish people are almost all poor and many are unable to read and write. Although this is a Catholic country. most of the natives have grown tired of the oppression of the priests and are indifferent to all religion. In June a little boy arrived in our home and there was less time than ever for Chautauqua reading. However, my husband and I both employed some of our spare moments to good advantage in reading the interesting American books and the always interesting magazine, and I have succeeded in finishing my course.

"I have not finished with Chautauqua by any means, however, for I sing its praises whenever and wherever I can. Although there is no field for introducing the work here, I have interested one gentleman, who is now reading some of my books. For the present I must drop out of the great Chautauqua circle, but shall hear of its doings from my sister and cousin, who are still members. May the Circle ever increase and each year give knowledge, inspiration and a broader outlook to more readers, fitting them for greater service in this needy world."

Sincerely yours, Louise Kessler Bauman.

CHAUTAUQUA'S MESSAGE TO SWEDEN.

A collection of the various tongues in which Chautauqua's educational ideals have been carried to the ends of the earth would be a good argument for Esperanto. Russia, Japan, Finland, Switzerland, Norway, Italy, and the Dutch of Orange Free State,—each of these countries has given Chautauqua welcome in its own native tongue. The latest addition to the group is Sweden. The Social Tidskrift, a facsimile of whose first page on Chautauqua is here given is a government publication designed to bring before the people important questions relating to education and social institutions, in all parts of the world. The present article by the editor, Herr G. H. von Koch, is the outcome of his visit to Chautaugua last summer when he and Mrs. won Koch were fortunately able to time their visit so as to be at Chautauqua on Recognition Day.



A 1909 POINT OF VIEW.

Now that the year has actually changed its name, the members of the Class of 1909 will realize anew that their four years' goal is not so very far ahead. "Yes, I am planning to be at Chautauqua," writes a member from Tennessee, "and shall bring with me several friends from this part of the country to swell the ranks of our glorious Dante Class on graduation Day. What an event in our lives this will be. But we do not mean to stop here. We recognize the helpful character of the C. L. S. C. and will be ready for another four years reading to begin with 1909."



SOME OF MONTAIGNE'S PHILOSOPHY. DO YOU AGREE WITH IT?

Our minds are never at home, but ever beyond home.

I will take care, if possible, that my death shall say nothing that my life has not said.

Life in itself is neither good nor bad: It is the place of what

is good or bad.

Knowledge should not be stuck on to the mind, but incorpor-

Irresolution seems to me the most common and apparent vice of our nature.

Age wrinkles the mind more than the face.

Habit is a second nature. Hunger cures love.

It is easier to get money than to keep it. Anger has often been the vehicle of courage.

It is more difficult to command than to obey. A liar should have a good memory.

Ambition is the daughter of presumption.

To serve a prince, you must be discreet and a liar.

We learn to live when life has passed.

We are all richer than we think, but we are brought up to go

a-begging.

The greatest masterpiece of man is . . . to be born at

the right time.

There is not so good a man who so squares all his thoughts and actions to the laws, that he is not faulty enough to deserve hanging ten times in his life.

FROM THE PRESIDENT OF 1903.

Members of the Class of 1903 will be glad to know that their president, Mrs. Hemingway, is enjoying a winter in Switzerland. Her experience as leader of a circle in Providence, Rhode Island, for some years has prepared her to get a great deal out of her European sojourn. She writes from Neûchatel, whither the good wishes of every member of her class will follow her:

"I am to remain in Neûchatel all this winter, as my children are to ent r the University here next month. We have traveled in five countries and my Chautaugua readings have been a great help to me. I only wish I had my books and magazines with me now so I could review. Yesterday I went to see an open air play called 'Divico.' It was of the early history of Switzerland in the time of the Druids. All was in French, but I found I had become 'foreignized,' as Mark Twain says, enough to understand most of it. I am going to Zurich some day and see where Bishop Vincent stopped. I wish to send greetings to the members of '1903' and all Chautauguans."

EDMONDO DE AMICIS.

Many of our readers have by this time made the acquaintace of "Holland and Its People" and will understand why that charming volume, written by an Italian, has so long been recognized as a classic. When de Amicis made his trip to Holland, few books of travel upon Holland were available, and despite the many excellent works since published, this one remains a favorite. His death at the age of sixty-two occurred only last year. As a lieutenant scarcely out of his teens he was set to hunting brigands in Sicily. At twenty he fought against the Austrians at Custozza. His literary tendencies showed themselves at an early day in military sketches and in his editorship of the Italia Militaire, and he finally retired to civil life when Victor Emmanuel occupied Rome. Novels and sketches of various sorts in his own country made him very popular. Later he traveled in Spain, Holland, Morocco, Paris, Constantinople and other cities further establishing his fame by the truthfulness and charm of his descriptions.

A VALUABLE REFERENCE BOOK.

A valuable reference book frequently mentioned in the programs is Larned's "History for Ready Reference." This work was originally published in four or five volumes to which a supplementary volume has since been added, bringing the material up to date. One of the advantages of this work is that the author has selected many of the most graphic presentations of a given subject and brought them together so that the student can find in their proper chronological order descriptions and character studies which might otherwise be inaccessible. Every library ought to have a copy of this useful work and Chautauqua readers will do well to make its acquaintance.



HINTS FOR THE STUDY OF ART.

In connection with Mr. Zug's articles on Hals and Rembrandt, copies of the "Masters in Art" series were recommended. The publishers have recently announced that these two numbers of the series are now out of print. The other numbers as noted by Mr. Zug in the September Chautauquan are still available. The Borch, De Hooch, Dou, Vermeer, Steen, Metsu, Ruisdael, Paul Potter, and Maes. For the benefit of those who are not acquainted with these monographs we may say that each contains ten admirably executed half-tones of the masterpieces of a given artist, a comprehensive biographical sketch, and a number of carefully selected comments upon his work by acknowledged masters of criticism. Brief comments by well-known critics upon each of the ten pictures are also included and a bibliography, making the pamphlet a most important work of reference. Perhaps its greatest value lies in the fact that the pictures can easily be removed and used for purposes of study in Circles, or, mounted and hung up for individual study at home.

The above pamphlets can be secured for twenty cents each

through The Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, New York.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We study the Word and the Works of God."
"Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst."
"Never be Discouraged."



C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October I.
BRYANT DAY—November 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY — November,
second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.
College DAY — January, last
Thursday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY-April 23.

Addison Day—May I.
Special Sunday—May, second
Sunday.
International Peace Day —
May 18.
Special Sunday—July, second
Sunday.
Inauguration Day — August,
first Saturday after first Tuesday.
Recognition Day—August, third
Wednesday.

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OUTLINE OR REQUIRED READING FOR FEBRUARY. FIRST WEEK-JANUARY 28-FEBRUARY 4.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "The Friendship of Nations," Chapter V. The Human Harvest.

In the Required Book: "Studies in European Literature." Chapter
I. The Song of Roland, Chapter II. Montaigne and Essay Writing in France.

SECOND WEEK-FEBRUARY 4-11.

In The Chautauquan: "International Aspects of Socialism."
In the Required Book: "Studies in European Literature," Chapter
III. Moliere's "Tartuffe," Chapter i./. Lyrists and Lyrics of Old France.

THIRD WEEK—FEBRUARY 11-18.
In The Chautauquan: "Dutch Art and Artists," Chapter V. The Painters of the Peasantry.

In the Required Book: "Studies in European Literature," Chapter V. Victor Hugo's "Ninety-Three."

FOURTH WEEK-FEBRUARY 18-25.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "A Reading Journey in the Hollow Land," Chapter V. Utrecht, Amsterdam, Broek, Zaandam, Mon-nikendam, Marken, and Edam.

In the Required Book: "Studies in European Literature," Chapter

VI. The Short Story in France.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

FIRST WEEK-JANUARY 28-FEBRUARY 4

Brief Paper: President David Starr Jordan and his Work. (See 21 references in Poole's Index.)

Review of Chapter V in "Friendship of Nations," The Human Harvest, with discussion of answers to search questions.

Discussion of the Song of Roland.

Reading: Selected passages from the Song of Roland. Unfortunately there seems to be no edition of the Song in print, but

copies can be found in many libraries.

Oral Report with Selected Readings from Ariosto's "Orlando Furioso." (See "Studies in the Poetry of Italy." Kuhns. A former C. L. S. C. book which will be found in many private as well as public libraries.)

Paper: The World in which Montaigne lived, his contemporaries

in politics, religion, literary and social life, education, etc.

(See Bibliography.)

Roll Call: Epigrams from Montaigne. (See Round Table.) Discussion from one or more of his essays. In the Warner Library of the World's Best Literature will be found a number of selections. An interesting study might be made by comparing Montaigne's essay on "Friendship" with Emerson's "Friendship." A brief summary of Emerson's essay on Montaigne would

form an illuminating side light.

SECOND WEEK-FEBRUARY 4-11.
Papers: Molière and his Times; Molière as a play writer. In the "Warner Library of the World's Best Literature" is an interesting comparison of Molière and Shakespeare. (See encyclopedias and bibliography.)

Readings from Molière: Selections from a number of his plays will be found in the "Warner Library." The giving of a single play by members of the Circle would make an interesting evening. If this seems to require too much time, a single play such as "Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme" (Shopkeeper turned Gentleman) might be read by one or more characters. The play translated can be secured through The Chautauqua Press for 30c. Without any such supplementary reading, however, the selections from "Tartuffe" given in our own book might be assigned to different members and the dialogue presented in abridged form, thus helping to familiarize the Circle with this masterpiece.

Paper: Hotel de Rambouillet and the Precieuses with selections

from Molière's play Les Precieuses Ridicules.

Roll Call: Answers to the question: What characteristics make the French writers thus far studied seem typically French to us?

THIRD WEEK-FEBRUARY 11-18.

Character Study: Victor Hugo. (See bibliography, also 'Ten Frenchmen of the Nineteenth Century." a former C. L. S. C. book to be found in many private families.)

Readings from Hugo's Poems. (See above, also Carrington's vol-

ume.)

Roll Call: Answered by illustrative selections from "Ninety-Three" with reason for the choice.

Paper on Utrecht University with selections from "An American in Holland," Chapter XXIII, the "Lustrum Feast of 1891."
Discussion of the works of Brouwer, Van Ostade, Steen, and Maes.

(See bibliography. All the above except Brouwer can be found in the "Masters in Art" series.)

FOURTH WEEK—FEBRUARY 18-25. Paper: Arminius, Holland's great Theologian. (See encyclope-

dias.)

Map Study of Amsterdam and its Waterways: See Baedeker's "Belgium and Holland" for map, "Great Canals," Снаитаи-очая, 20:298, Dec., 1894. "Canals in Holland," Living Age, 102-810.

Reading: Selections from "The Canals and their Population." (See

"Dutch Life in Town and Country.")

Brief Reports: The Diamond Industry. (See Amicis' "Holland and Its People;") Sectarianism and Varied Nationalities to be found in Amsterdam (see encyclopedias, also Amicis): The Jansenists and the Moravian settlement at Zeist. (See Amicis.) Reading: Selection from "How We Saw Amsterdam." (See

"Through the Gates of the Netherlands" by Waller, pp. 172-6.) See also colored illustrations and text in "Amsterdam," by E. Penfield, Scribner's Magasine, 37:45-53, January, '05. Review of Article in this magazine on Tesselschade Visscher.

THE TRAVEL CLUB.

Special programs for Graduate Circles and Clubs specializing upon the two Dutch Series. (A copy of Baedeker's "Belgium and Holland" is quite indispensable for such clubs.)

FIRST WEEK. Paper: Utrecht and other Dutch Universities. (See "Dutch Life in Town and Country," Chapter XIV.) Reading: Selection from "An American in Holland," Chapter XXIII., the "Lustrum Feast" of 1891; (see also Chapter on Utrecht in "Holland and the Hollanders.")

Utrecht in "Holland and the Hollanders.")

Paper: Utrecht in History. (See Baedeker, histories of Holland, Amicis' "Holland and Its People.")

Oral Report: The Jansenists. (See Amicis' "Holland and Its People," encyclopedias, and all available works.)

Reading: The Moravian Settlement at Zeist. (See Amicis' chapter

on Utrecht.)

Roll Call followed by Discussion: Famous Churches of Holland, with special reference to their architecture, Utrecht Cathedral, St. Lawrence at Rotterdam, St. Peters at Leyden, Oude Kerk and Nieuwe Kerk at Delft, etc. Pictures illustrating their style should be brought, if possible. A committee should make up a list of churches. The discussion may bring out the general character of Dutch Gothic churches as compared with those of France and Germany. See "Holland and the Hollanders," page 271, on government care of churches.

SECOND WEEK.

Paper: Amsterdam in History. (See Dutch histories, Larned's History for Ready Reference.)

Reading: Selections from "A Wanderer in Holland," Lucas, page 55, quaint description of Amsterdam in the seventeenth century; pp. 170-71, Dutch versus English national traits.
Roll Call: Striking features of the great Rijks Museum. (The

program committee should assign these.)

Brief Reports on: The Diamond Industry. (See Amicis and "Holland and the Hollanders," page 361); Orphanages; Sectarianism and varied nationalities as witnessed in Amsterdam. (See

Baedeker, Amicis, and other helps.)

Reading: Selection from "The Canals and their Population." (See "Dutch Life in Town and Country.")

Paper on Waterways, with map study of Amsterdam: (See "Great Canals," CHAUTAUQUAN, 20:298, "Canals in Holland," Living

Age, 192:810.)

Reading: How we saw Amsterdam. (See "Through the Gates of the Netherlands" by Mary E. Waller, pp. 172-6; also selections from Amicis' chapter on Amsterdam; see also colored illustrations in "Amsterdam" by E. Penfield, Scribner's Magasine, 37:45-53, January, 1905.)

THIRD WEEK.

Paper: Holland from 1813 to 1830. (See histories of Holland and of Modern Europe.)

Reading: Selections from "The Cloister and the Hearth." (See Scribner's Magasine, 37:116-122, Jan., '05.)
Review of article in this magazine on Tesselschade Visscher.

Roll Call: Quotations from this poet. (See also for better details "Studies in the Literature of Northern Europe," by

Emund Gosse.

Reading: "The Don Quixote Country" in "Through the Gates of the Netherlands," Chapter XVIII.

Oral Reports: Various travelers' views of Brock, Zaandam, Marken,

Monnikendam, etc. (See available books.)

Study of pictures by Brouwer and Van Ostade. (See Bibliography followin Mr. Zug's article.)

FOURTH WEEK.

Paper: Arminius, Holland's great Theologian. (See encyclopedias.) Reading: Selection from "Magenta Village," E. Penfield, Scribner's Magasine, 40:25-33, July, '06; or Volendam, the Artists' Village, F. C. Albrecht, Scribner's Magasine, 41:327-29, March, 1007.

Oral Report: The Cheese industries of Holland. Volendam and Edam. (See article by F. C. Albrecht in Scribner's Magasine, 41:606-10, May, '07, and the various books referred to above.) Study of pictures by Jan Steen and Nicholas Maes. (See bibliography following Mr. Zug's article.)

4

REVIEW AND SEARCH QUESTIONS ON FEBRUARY READINGS

THE FRIENDSHIP OF NATIONS. CHAPTER V. THE HUMAN HARVEST.

I. Under what circumstances was this address first given? 2. What was Franklin's comment regarding the harm of a standing army? 3. What four factors enter into the creation of a superior type of horse? 4. What parable does the author present? 5. What were the days of Roman greatness and why? 6. What was the effect of the spirit of "domination" which developed? 7. What he statement that the ling is dependent upon the mobile of the spirit of the spirit of "domination" which developed? is meant by the statement that the king is dependent upon the mob spirit? 8. Illustrate this by the Roman emperors. 9. How have historians in general regarded the importance of men as organisms? 10. How did Romans brave enough to rise politically, usually fare? What did Caesar's complaint of the scarcity of men signify? What state of things came to the front under the Antonines? 12. 13. What became the relation between the citizens and the emperor? 14. What at length brought in the barbar ans? 15. What is Dr. Seeck's estimate of the quality of men who survived the fall of Rome? 16. Why is the 'dea that Rome fell because of luxury repudiated? 17. What significant comment was made upon Spain by one of her own writers? 18. Why is rrance said to be a decadent nation? 19. To what does our author ascribe this? Illustrate in Napoleon's life the growth of the coirit of domination. 21. Describe the drain upon the resources of the country.

A READING JOURNEY IN THE HOLLOW LAND. CHAPTER V.

I. What is the character of the country around Utrecht? 2. What are some of the striking features of the town? 3. What famous treaty was signed here in 1579? 4. Describe the general appearance of Amsterdam. 5. What are the attractions of the river front? 6. What picture of back streets does our author give? 7. What is the Krasnapolsky? 8. What interest has the Jews' quarter? 9. What is the history of the Weeper's Tower? 10. What historical interest has St. Anthony's weigh house? 11. What are some of the attractions of the Rijks Museum? 12. What quaint character has Broek? 13. Describe Marken and its inhabitants. 14. What is Holland's greatest windmill city and what its famous relic? 15. What attractions has Volendam for artists? 16. What unique character has the museum of Edam?

DUTCH ART AND ARTISTS. CHAPTER V. THE PAINTERS OF THE PEASANTRY.

 What other painters aside from the Dutch had introduced genre scenes?
 How did these earlier pictures differ in kind from those of Ter Borch, Metsu, and other men of his group? 3. Define genre. 4. What constitutes great art in painting? 5. What subjects attracted the Little Dutchmen? 6. What are the chief facts in the life of Adrian Brouwer? 7. Why are his paintings disliked by many persons? 8. What fine qualities does the artist see in them? 9. How did his earlier compare with his later work? 10. With what great master is Van Ostade compared and why? 11. How is his skill shown in his "Peasants in an Inn?" 12. How is intimacy between him and Millet shown? 13. What qualities of their work naturally draw them together? 14. What remains of Ostade's work show the range of his gifts? 15. How far were his brother Isaac's talents comparable to his own? 16. For what qualities does Jan Steen take high rank? 17. How many of his paintings have come down to us? 18. Describe his "Bad Company?" 19. Why is it improbable that all the tales told of him are true? 20. How does his treatment of child life compare with the work of his contemporaries? 21. In what respect did Nicholas Maes achieve distinction? 22. Compare in general the achievements of the "Little Dutchmen" with those of other European countries.

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

- 1. What was the cause and what the result of the battle of Philippi? 2. Who was Cincinnatus? 2. How did Claudius and Caligula come to wear the Roman purple? 4. Who wrote "The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire?" 5. Who were Marius, Cinna, and Sulla? 6. What period of time elasped between Tiberus and Constantine? 7. What is the Wiertz collection in Brussels?
- 1. What Pope was born in Utrecht and what connection had he with Charles V.? 2. What great war was terminated in 1713 by the Peace of Utrecht? 3. What is the origin of the term "a papal bull?". 4. What is "Vathek?" 5. What is the Bean Festival portrayed by Steen in one of his paintings? 6. What pictures of his may be seen in this country and where? 7. What Dutchman, famous for his literary achievements, had his portrait painted by Nicholas Maes?

ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON JANUARY READINGS.

I. Vasari was an Italian architect and painter, but is chiefly known by the celebrated series of lives of the artists, 2. The Thirty years' War. 3. Philip IV., grandson of Philip II. 4. It was originally the palace of Prince John Maurice of Nassau, Governor of Brazil, who built it on his return from Brazil in 1644. It was a magnificent building, but destroyed by fire in 1704. It was restored externally and in 1820 set apart as a royal art gallery. The collections were made by various Princes of Orange, especially William V., the last stadtholder. 5. William III., Prince of Orange. 6. Because in many towns of Holland there were people of the same name as the painter, living at the same period.

I. A distinguished American artist who spent his life chiefly in London. He was a person of independent views and erratic in temperament, but possessed genius of a high order. He painted the famous Peacock room which was later brought to America, and

in time will become the property of the national government. His portrait of his mother is widely known. He was a great student of technique and his handling of colors was masterly. As an etcher he ranks with the few great artists of the world. 2. He was born in Holland, but spent h's life in Paris, achieving distinction as a painter of portraits of famous men and of religious subjects. 3. The unjust execution of John of Barneveld. 4. A famous English writer of noble descent, wife of Edward Wortley Montague, who served as ambassador to Turkey in 1717. She was very intimate with Queen Caroline, wife of George IV., and her "Letters" give many admirable descriptions of the social life of her times.



NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES.

"I must confess," remarked a dejected member of the Round Table, "that the Dutch names are too much for me. It's worse than trying to learn to talk German without ever hearing it. The double o's and the gutturals and all the rest fill me with despair. My husband says the only way out of it that he can see, is to take a trip to Holland!" "Evidently you don't belong to a Circle," observed a Michigan member. Our Circle has had a drill on Dutch words at every meeting till we've almost forgotten how we used to pronounce them. Yahn Stane, and Nicholas Mahs and even Peter deh Hoach we can really pronounce glibly in spite of the German ch, and as for Van's Grahvehzahndeh the name begins to seem quite human, though for a time we could not approach it. as between joining a Circle and going to Holland-you won't, of course, misunderstand me!" "I live in a mountainous country," commented a Tennessean, "and perhaps that explains the peculiar sense of novelty that Holland has for me. I've read our Reading Journey in Holland several times over and supplemented it with Amicis' charming volume. I was sorry to note a brief account of his death and interested to know that was a staunch patriot. His book gives the impression of an unusually broad-minded writer."

The delegate from Ashland, Kentucky, reported great interest in the study of Napoleon. "There are six of us," she said, "and this is our third year. Before we began the C. L. S. C. work we were a Browning Club and we've not forgotten our first love, so we shall soon have a Browning meeting. It ought to fit in with most anything Modern European, the two Brownings were such cosmopolitan people." "Of course you'll read 'An Incident of the French Camp,'" said Pendragon. "You remember that picture of Napoleon:

"With neck outstretched, you fancy how,

Legs wide, arms locked behind As if to balance the prone brow Oppressive with its mind."

"I see from this clipping," he continued, "that the Edelweiss

Circle of Mt. Vernon, New York, in holding its first contest after dividing the Circle into two opposing camps, conducted a quiz on Napoleon. It proved a very spirited affair. A brief descriptive reading of Napoleon's march into Russia was supplemented by an interesting account of the famous retreat, and the Circle was put through a definition test of words selected from the Required Readings, besides discussions of other interesting topics. The Circle is holding an Esperanto hour before each meeting and by the end of the year we shall doubtless learn that the members are not only holding meetings in Esperanto, but are preparing to go abroad and cultivate their European neighbors!"



"We are still practising English," observed the delegate from Newbern, Tennessee, "and it is quite noteworthy in our circle how much the members find in the way of supplementary material with which to vary the regular program. They are not content with just reading the prescribed course, but find time for many additional books and magazine articles recommended in connection with the work. Dumas' beautiful story, "The Black Tulip," was told in class this afternoon, emphasizing very forcibly the Hollander's love of horticulture, and what an interesting writer we find George Wharton Edwards, and how charmingly he pictures 'brave little Holland,' -her wonderful record in war, arts, and commerce as compared to many countries several times her size. De Amicis speaks of them as a stolid, silent people who are rarely seen to laugh. It is hard to conceive of so prosperous a folk as the Dutch devoid of mirth and we wonder where Franz Hals found his models! Dr. Reich gave us a 'surprise' as well as new thoughts in some of his views on the American Revolution, and his argument of the 'mystic' in connection with the master mind Napoleon was guite beyond our vision. 'Danger points around the globe' is most timely and has led to much hard study of conditions in the Far East. The magazine grows better each year and it is whispered the new books are the best in the four years' course. Perhaps we are better prepared to grasp them. We were indeed sorry to hear of Chautauqua's great fire."



"The advantages of a Carnegie library being at our disposal," observed the delegate from Annville, Pa., "we are trying to live up to our opportunities, a very pleasant task, you may be sure. This is our third year. We have thirty members, and the spirit of discussion which is abroad in our Circle promises to keep our interest keen. At our first meeting we initiated our Dutch studies with a geographical study of Holland and consideration of what Holland stood for in the world's civilization. We are all most in-

terested in the books and the recent stirring events in Turkey, Austria, Bulgaria, Servia, Montenegro, and Crete, and the proposed international council to settle difficulties are given additional interest and light by 'The Friendship of Nations.' Likewise the Holland-Venezuela imbroglio. We have adopted the plan of a fifteen minutes' intermission. It has already helped to give our meetings an informal character and enabled us to make the acquaintance of our new members."

"Here is a letter," said Pendragon, "which indicates how a small circle can adapt itself to the needs of some of its members in a way that some larger ones might not find possible. Small circles of from three to half a dozen members are quite apt to be very effective study groups. This one is in Appleton, Wis.:

"'I myself am trying to get all I can out of the course laid out in The Chautauquan, but in my position it is impossible to be regular in my study, yet we have a small circle which meets once a week and often at my office, in fact, that has been the place of meeting for the last two years, but as I was often obliged to be absent, they thought it best to meet at the different homes and occasionally at my office. We follow the outline given as closely as we can, assigning the different subjects to members as we see fit. I have had but little opportunity to do outside reading, so when library references are required others must do it. We each feel that this year's work is beginning with much interest and the first book has brought to us something new even about our own country. Each department of The Chautauquan is so interesting that it is hard to say which we enjoy most, but the Library Shelf of the September number is full of good reading."

"A Circle from which we haven't heard at the Round Table as often as we should," observed Pendragon, "is the King Avenue C. L. S. C. of Columbus, Ohio. You must hear from them:" "Pride and promptness seem to be our primitive virtues," responded the delegate. "We begin with the roll call of current events, and this year has lent itself to especially stirring parallel between our reading and present-day Europe, so that we all hate to miss anything and having once set our pace we have tried to keep it. There are seventeen of us, and our pastor and his wife, Dr. and Mrs. Rudisill, have done much to make the Circle a most important feature of our church life. Now and then when someone falls out there are others well primed who help bring up deficiencies so through this friendly interchange of interests we never fail to be stimulated by the meetings."

"We are another of those small circles," said a Louisville, Ky, member. "We number five. Two of us spent a season at Chautauqua in 1907 and our Circle is the result. Four of us are teachers. We meet every Tuesday afternoon from 3:30 to 5 unless a school supervisor by chance imposes other duties, when we readjust our Circle by telephone. We are doing a little outside reading this year

relating to the French Revolution, and as was the case last year, we borrowed books from the public library or each other. In June and July last year we supplemented our American readings by holding our weekly meetings in some picturesque spot near the river, talking over our work and reading aloud a short story illustrating some type of American literature. You can imagine we've got a great deal out of our year. We all hope to go to Chautauqua in 1011."

"As for our Circle," the speaker proved to be from Charleston, W. Va., "we not only extend our work into the summer but we enjoy it so much that we take no vacation at all! In the vacation period we meet once a week and confine our program to the year we've been studying. In July every year we have a picnic in the park. My home is the home of the Circle and there are more than twice our number that meet and study with us. As we knew of no circulating library in the city, last March we organized a library among ourselves and we take alphabetical turns in selecting our books and have had several donations of books, papers, and magazines."

"There is an interesting Chautauqua outgrowth in Lynnfield, Mass.," said Pendragon, as he noted various letters brought in by a messenger. "My informant alludes to it very briefly. He speaks of sixty-three having joined and then forty-three more. It seems to be a league with subdivisions for various activities, among them the C. L. S. C. We shall look for further particulars. At Ravenswood, Illinois, there is a fine new circle also promising later particulars, and at Cincinnati the Franklin Circle marks a new era. It has a membership of twenty. Cincinnati has had a strong organization of graduates from the time of the '82's, but a strong undergraduate circle has been needed. We are especially glad to congratulate the Franklin members."

"Let me say for the Whitney Circle of New Haven, Conn.," commented the president, Miss Briggs, "that we have been getting up a year-book for our Circle and feel that our meetings are going to be most interesting. We've all been more than pleased with the books. I've finished 'Seen in Germany,' and enjoyed it as much as I would a novel."

"I see that the 'Register' of our town, Mobile, Alabama," laughed a delegate, "says that on a recent date 'society worshipped at love's shrine, was brought together at cards and met at athletics and literary meetings. Literature was in the ascendant, for there were three literary meetings and the Chautauqua Circle had another to its credit in an afternoon meeting.' You'll be glad to know that not only literature in general, but the Chautauqua Circle in part cular was in the 'ascendant.' We had an interesting afternoon

meeting, I assure you, with two fine papers on 'Josephine' and on 'The Turkish Situation.'"

"We are particuarly enjoying the books this year," added a member from Belfast, Maine, "for our Circle contains both old and new readers and there are no duplicate books. We realize that Professor Emil Reich holds some facts and views quite new to us on the American Revolution. However, we all like the book and are trying to find something more about the author. We have some new members of 1912 in our circle, so the succession is being kept up. Our Union C. L. S. C. Vesper Service of all the churches was held on October 25. The choir rendered fine music and the pastor of the Universalist church conducted the service and made the address. Our public library has the C. L. S. C. books and we are trying by means of lending books to interest others."



"Time and space always limit our reports," said Pendragon, "but this mass of clippings indicates the activities of many Circles here present who will have a chance later on. Among those who publish their reports in the papers are the Circles at Santa Clara and Oakland, California; Warren, Ohio, where a large Circle meets in a public hall; Wichita, Kansas, where the report of the Sunflower Circle may be taken as typical of the dozen or more circles in that town; Mishawaka, Indiana; the Des Moines group and the quartet of Circles at Jamestown, New York; Tarentum, Waynesburg, Punxsutawney, Pa.; Rowley, Mass., and a host of others. New Circles and graduate S. H. G.'s are among the number.

"We may like to remember in closing these words by Mr. Norman Hapgood, editor of Collier's Magasine, given in an address at Chautauqua last summer: 'Let us learn to read fewer newspapers and read great books more. Let us at any rate read for information and not for padding. Let us read to start ideas and not to stimulate vacant minds. An enterprise like Chautauqua is the greatest safeguard for the public and for every department of life. A solid basis of the ideal will make the future better. To learn how to live is what real education means. It means to realize the wish of the Latin poet, Horace, "A hollow tree, a crust of bread, and liberty! Those men are freest who want the fewest things.""

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REVIEW QUESTIONS ON STUDIES IN EUROPEAN LITERATURE.

CHAPTER I. AN EPIC. THE SONG OF ROLAND.

I. What is the earliest mention of the Song of Roland? 2. Why is this looked upon as reliable? 3. On what real event is the Song of Roland based? 4. Show how a tradition grows up. 5. What traditions have we seen grow in very recent times? 6. Why

did the Song of Roland change from lyric to epic form? 7. What importance has the religious element in the Song? 8. What features of the "Song" show its medieval atmosphere? 9. Who are the heroes of Orlando Furioso?

CHAPTER II. MONTAIGNE AND ESSAY WRITING IN FRANCE.

I. What was the political and religious atmosphere in the times when Montaigne lived? 2. How did the revival of learning bring about religious strife among the Northern nations? 3. What traits of character are indicated by the facts of Montaigne's early life? 4. Show how the essay developed into a new literary product under Montaigne's treatment. 5. Why did Montaigne give them this title? 6. What special distinction have they? 7. Why is he classed among the skeptics? 8. What are some of the problems discussed by Montaigne which still demand serious attention in our own day? 9. How does he exhibit a spirit of tolerance? 10. What ideals of Montaigne on Education have received much attention in our own day? II. How has the modern essay developed a form quite distinct from Montaigne's?

CHAPTER III. TARTUFFE: A TYPICAL COMEDY BY MOLIERE.

I. Who was Molière? 2. St. Simon Stylites? 3. What famous men were to be found at the court of Louis XIV.? 4. What literary men of England were their contemporaries? 5. In what condition was the Church of France at this time? 6. How was the play of "Tartuffe" received? 7. Against what real evil was the play directed? 8. What office does Dorine perform in the play? 9. How has the Jesuit been able to impose upon so many of the characters? 10. How had the art of conversation been brought to perfection in France at this time?

CHAPTER IV. LYRISTS AND LYRICS OF OLD FRANCE.

How did poetry in England and in France compare between the thirteenth and seventeenth centuries? 2. What good result came from the rhyming instinct of the French during this time? 3. Why are the Chronicles of Froissart so important as a literary production? 4. What is the nature of that "brilliant, miserable" time which he pictures? 5. In what respects was it miserable as compared with our own day? 6. To what extremes did the passion for rhyming run? 7. How far was this true in Germany? 8. How did the reaction after the Crusades show itself in French poetry? 9. Tell what is known of the chief of these singers. 10. What famous poets have translated them?

CHAPTER V. VICTOR HUGO'S "NINETY-THREE."

Under what circumstances was "Ninety-Three" written? In what respects is this novel ---ite different from many of Victor Hugo's? 3. How does the author lighten the tragic aspects of the story. 4. How does he make his description of nature contribute to the effect? 5. What are some of the famous descriptions in this story? 6. What ideas are typified by the three chief men? 7. Does Hugo show his own idealism in this story?

CHAPTER VI. THE SHORT STORY IN FRANCE.

1. In the story by de Maupassant published in the September Chautauquan show the author's remarkable skill in setting before the reader briefly the scene of his tale? 2. Note instances of his vivid delineation of character. 3. Note his handling of dialogue; how he suggests ideas without going into detailed description. 4. In what other respects does the story seem to you remarkably well

- told? 5. What in general is characteristic of the scenes where Mérimée lays his short stories? 6. What different qualities of Daudet are shown in his two tales "The Stars" and "The Pope's Mule?" 7. What is the significance of the title of the group "Letters from my Mill?" 8. For what other works is Daudet famous?
- I. Show how "The Three Musketeers" was appreciated by men of Dumas' own time. 2. Of what ancestry was Dumas? 3. What may be said of the influence of his environment? 4. Why did the drama appeal to him? 5. How was he finally attracted to fiction? 6. What was the general character of his famous series of novels? 7. How does his work resemble that of the old minstrels? 8. In what does his skill consist? 9. What qualities does he lack? 10. How were his stories published? 11. Into what extremes did this method of publication lead him? 12. Why may he be called an entertainer rather than an "artist?" 13. What gives "The Three Musketeers" its great charm? 14. How did Dumas' work blight the historical novel in France?
- I. Of what series of stories by Balzac does "Eugénie Grandet" form a part? 2. Give the setting of the story, the character of the town and of the ex-mayor. 3. What is the outline of the story? 4. How is Balzac's genius shown in the way in which he has told the story? 5. Why has this great story exerted such a powerful influence?

CHAPTER IX. GEORGE SAND.

- I. What marked contrasts may be noted between the work of George Sand and that of George Eliot? 2. What were the chief events of George Sand's childhood and early life? 3. Under what circumstances was her first independent novel produced? 4. What were the ruling ideas expressed in her earlier books? 5. How was her work influenced by her surroundings? 6. In what stories was her love of country life expressed? 7. In what does the charm of her writing consist? 8. How is her interest in folk-lore shown
- CHAPTER X. EMILE ZOLA. LE REVE.

 1. How did "Le Rêve" contrast with the other works of Zola which gave him fame? 2. What were the chief events of Zola's early life? 3. How was he influenced by the writings of Balzac?

 4. What circumstances finally led to the publication of the Rougon-Macquart series? 5. What in general is the character of the different books of this series? 6. What is the setting of "Le Rêve?"

 7. How does the author make the surroundings of Angelique contribute to her character? 8. In what respects is his scientific realism show? 9. What exquisite bits of description are found in the story? 10. What was the character of Zola's later writings? 11.

in "Little Fadette?" 9. Tell the story of "The Haunted Pool."

I. What event in Paris in December, '97, stands out in the history of modern literature? 2. What reputation had Rostand already won at this time? 3. How does the character of Cyrano establish itself in the first act? 4. What further traits develop in the second? 5. What ingenious device is employed in the third act? 6. What is the climax of the fourth act? 7. How is the romantic ideal translated by Rostand into the terms of modern life?

How was the nobility of his character vindicated at the last?

8. What brilliant qualities has the play? 9. How is the author's poetic skill shown? 10. What distinction has he received in recent years?

CHAPTER XII. LESSING'S NATHAN THE WISE.

1. What strong traits of character had Lessing? 2. How is he looked upon at the present day? 3. What are the chief events of his life? 4. How was he drawn into religious controversy? 5. How did he resolve to meet his antagonists? 6. What was Lessing's creed? 7. Describe the types in "Nathan the Wise." 8. What is the story of the play? 9. What criticisms have been made upon the play? 10. What are its teachings?

CHAPTER XIII. SCHILLER'S WILHELM TELL.

I. In what way are Luther and Schiller alike? 2. How do the Germans feel toward Schiller as compared with other great leaders? 3. What is the secret of Schiller's influence? 4. What does Carlyle say of him? 5. What are Schiller's best-known works? 6. How does Schiller rank among the poets of Germany? 7. What effect did the friendship of Goethe and Schiller have upon each of them? 8. What honors were bestowed upon Schiller? 9. How do the characters of "Tell" express the traits of the Swiss people? 10. How is the theme of the play developed in the first act? 11. Contrast the positions of the nobility and of the peasants. What important points are brought out in the final act? 13. What is the connection between "Tell" and an earlier work of Schiller's?

CHAPTER XIV. GOETHE'S FAUST. PART I.

1. Why is Goethe considered the master of poets? 2. How was he fortunate in his parents? 3. Give the main facts of his life.

4. What were the remarkable characteristics of his time? 5. What varied talents did he show in early life. 6. What are his chief works? 7. What position did he occupy at Weimar? 8. How do Lewes and Carlyle estimate his greatness? 9. Why is "Faust" the "Divine Comedy" of Germany? 10. Why does the play of "Faust" possess such intense interest? 11. What forms had the Faust legend taken previous to Goethe's use of it? 12. Describe the three-fold introduction to Goethe's "Faust." 13. Describe the opening of Part I. 14. How and why is Faust rejuvenated? 15. How does Margaret expiate her wrong? 16. How does Faust's behavior show that Mephisto has not yet enslaved him? 17. How does Part I. prepare the way for Part II.?

CHAPTER XV. GOETHE'S FAUST. PART II.

1. Why is the second part of "Faust" of even greater importance than the first? 2. Why is it difficult to understand? 3. Why does it repay careful study? 4. What form of atonement is Faust to pass through? 5. What is the first step in the process? 6. To what does Faust now turn as a possible source of happiness? 7. What part does Mephisto take in this new undertaking? 8. Describe the masquerade. 9. What is Mephisto's object in helping Faust to his new position? 10. Describe the scene where Faust presents Paris and Helen to the court. 11. What is the effect of this experience upon Faust himself? 12. Through what experiences does Faust's quest of beauty carry him? 13. Describe the allegory of the third act and its significance. 14. To what kind of effort does Faust now turn in his pursuit of happiness? 15. How does he carry out his great project for service to mankind? 16.

What ghostly symbols appear to Faust and with what effect? 17. How does his end come? 18. Why has Mephisto really lost his wager? 19. Quote the lines which set forth Faust's salvation.

CHAPTER XVI. HEINRICH HEINE-HIS LIFE AND WORK.

- I. What description does Heine give of himself? 2. Describe his parents. 3. What traits did he inherit? 4. What incidents of his childhood illustrate his strong imagination? 5. How did French influences enter into his education? 6. Why had Heine no special attachment to his own country? 7. What was the result of his attempt at business in Hamburg? 8. What remarkable qualities has his "Book of Songs?" 9. What were some of his experiences as a law student? 10. What were his "Travel Pictures," and why did they become so famous? 11. Why did Heine change his creed? 12. Describe his life in Munich and the changes which followed. 13. How did he live in Paris? 14. What was his ambition for himself and why did he fail to realize it?
- CHAPTER XVII. MAURICE MAETERLINCK: "THE INTRUDER," "THE BLIND."

 1. Who is Maeterlinck? 2. Why did "The Princess Maleine" call forth the comment "a greater than Shakespeare?" 3. How did this play indicate Maeterlinck's connection with the symbolists? 4. What other poets belonged to this group? 5. Define symbolism and naturalism. 6. What is the story of "The Intruder?" 7. What, according to Maeterlinck, are the three principal elements in literature? 8. What difficulties to the dramatist are presented by the third element? 9. How does the painter meet the same problem? 10. How does Maeterlinck explain his idea of dramatic dialogue? 11. What is the story of "The Blind?" 12. With what effective touches does Maeterlinck bring out the psychology of the characters in this play? 13. What human tragedy is suggested in his sketch "The Death of Tintagiles?" 14. How did Maeterlinck show pessimistic qualities in his earlier plays? 15. In what respect have his views widened in later years? 16. What is true of his essays?

CHAPTER XVIII. GERHARDT HAUPTMANN: "THE SUNKEN BELL."

I. What reaction from naturalistic art has been felt both in the drama and in general literature? 2. By what plays did Hauptmann carry out his theories of naturalistic art? 3. What was the effect upon Germany? 4. In what later play and how is the influence of Maeterlinck apparent? 5. What is the story of "The Sunken Bell?" 6. How does it differ from the old folk tales? 7. What do the various characters symbolize? 8. Who was Nietzsche? 2. Why does the play terminate unsatisfactorily? 10. What has Hauptmann produced snice he wrote "The Sunken Bell?"

CHAPTER XIX. HERMANN SUDERMANN: "ES WAR."

I. What contrasts are exhibited between the plays of Hauptmann and Sudermann? 2. What plays of Sudermann show his highest development? 3. How do Sudermann's plays compare with his novels? 4. By what two writers was he influenced in the production of his novel "Es War?" 5. Upon what theme does the play lay emphasis? 6. Why does the hero find difficulty in holding to it consistently? 7. In what respects does he finally triumph?

CHAPTER XX. HENRIK IBSEN: "A DOLL'S HOUSE."

1. Through what struggles did Ibsen pass in the earlier stages of his career? 2. What events marked a turning point in his life?

3. At what time did he change from poetry to prose. 4. What

growing attitude toward life was expressed in his prose dramas?

5. Where are the scenes of these dramas laid? 6. Why did they command such widespread attention? 7. What effect did they produce in England? 8. How did the dramatic form of "A Doll's House" differ from the old type of play? 9. What differences in the stage setting? 10. How has Ibsen been unfairly judged? 11. What reasons can be urged for Ibsen's leaving the end of the play an open question?

Esperanto News

There will be no International Esperanto Congress in America in 1908. The Konstanta Komitato, that is to say, the Permanent Congress realized that a mistake had been made in trying to hold two International Congresses during the same year and asked the Spaniards to put off their Congress. They refused, then General Sebert asked America to postpone its Congress and the Esperanto Association of North America accepted. This closes the incident.

The second National Congress of Esperantists will take place in Chautauqua from Aug. 9 to Aug. 14 and will mark a great ad-

vance upon the last Congress.

HOW TO FORM A CLUB.

There are a great many Esperantists who wish to do their share of the work which is so rapidly bringing Esperanto to the front, who wish to get in touch with other Esperantists and form a club in their own town, but do not know just how to set about it. For the benefit of such persons we intend to give a few suggestions.

There is not a town in the country of any size in which there are not at least a few Esperantists, as the subscription list of Amerika Esperantisto shows. In order to form a club, it is only neces-

sary that these people get together.

Write an article for your newspaper, explaining Esperanto and its objects. Ask all interested to communicate with you for the purpose of forming an organization to boom Esperanto in your town. If you can't write it yourself, ask Amerika Esperantisto to furnish you with an article already prepared, or copy one from the Bulletin. Take it to your editor; he will be very willing to print it. You will be surprised at the number of answers you will receive, and it's ten to one that you will be able to form a good club and put your town where it belongs in the Esperanto movement.

Do it now!

A good example of the world-wide spread of Esperanto is seen in the fact that an Esperanto club, composed of Syrians, Arabs, and Egyptians, has been formed at Khartoum, Egypt, where only a few years ago the savage followers of the Mahdi held sway. A club of native Fijians at Levuka (Fiji Is.) is enthusiastically carrying on the propaganda of Esperanto. A missionary in South Africa is teaching the language to a class of thirty young Zulus.

The Esperanto Association of North America gained 270 members in the last month. This serves to show that Esperanto is gaining ground rapidly in the country. Since the cost is only 25 cents per year, everyone really interested in the success of our movement should become a member and thus contribute his mite towards car-

rving on the good work.

LA TUALETO. (Daurigo.)

Botelo da dentopulvoro estas sur la A bottle of toothpowder is on the washlavtableto. stand.

La infano prenas la botelon, li malŝraŭbas la ŝtopilon,

li malŝtopas la botelon, he uncorks the bottle, kaj metas ŝtopilon kaj botelon sur laand puts bottle and stopper upon the lavatableton apud la pelvon. washbowl.

Estas glaso sur la lavtableto. Li prenas la glason, li plenigas ĝin per akvo, kaj metas la glason sur la lavtableton.

Li prenas sian dentobroson, li enmetas la broson en la akvon, li eltiras la broson el la akvo, li skuas la broson super la pelvo, There is a glass on the washstand. He takes the glass, he fills it with water, and puts the glass on the washstand.

The child takes the bottle, he unscrews the stonner,

He takes his toothbrush, he plunges the brush into the water, he takes the brush out of the water, he shakes the brush over the bowl.

he turns the bottle over,

Li prenas la botelon da dentopulvoro per He takes the bottle of toothpowder with maldekstra mano, his left hand. he lifts the bottle,

li levas la botelon, li renversas la botelon, li skuas la botelon,

he shakes the bottle, li faligas iomete da pulvoron sur lahe makes a little toothpowder fall on dentobroson, the toothbrush,

li remetas la botelon sur la lavata-he puts the bottle back upon the washbleton. stand.

Li subfleksas super la pelvo, li malfermetas la lipojn, li kunpremas la dentojn, li internigas la broson en la buŝon, lipurigas la dentojn, li eltiras la broson el la buson.

li prenas la glason, li gin levas al siaj lipoi. li prenas glutkvanton da akvo li lavetas la internon de la buŝo, li elsputas la akvon en la pelvon, li reprenas akvon en la buŝon,

li gargaras, li refaras tion kelkfoje kaj metas glasonhe repeats that several times and puts kaj broson sur la lavtableton.

Li sekigas siajn lipojn, li purigas sian detobroson, li restopas la botelon da dentopulvoro, li malplenigas la pelvon, li metas cion en gian lokon, kaj revenas al sia dormoĉambro.

La infano trairas la cambron, li iras al sia komodo,

He bends over the washbowl, he parts his lips, he closes his teeth, he introduces the brush into his mouth, he cleans his teeth, , he takes the brush out of his mouth.

He takes the glass, he raises it to his lips he takes a mouthful of water, he rinses the inside of his mouth, he spits the water into the bowl, he again takes water into his mouth, he gargles, the glass and the brush upon the washstand.

He dries his lips, he cleans his toothbrush, he restops the bottle of tooth powder, he empties the washbowl, he puts everything in place, and goes back to his bedroom.

The child crosses the room, he goes to his bureau.

tiras la tirkeston, tirkesto cedas, tirkesto glitas sur la gltilojn, infano malfermas la tirkeston.

prenas puran ĉemizon, refermas la tirkeston, ŝante ĝin ner genuo, iras al sia lito, metas la cemizon sur la liton, eltiras la pinglojn ui tenas la ĉemizon faldite, malfaldas la ĉemizon, prenas siajn ĉemizbutonojn, butontruojn.

prenas la du prenilojn de la tirkesto, he takes both handles of the drawer, he pulls the drawer, the drawer gives way, the drawer slides upon its runners, the child opens the drawer.

He takes a clean shirt, he closes the drawer again, by pushing it with his knee, he goes to his bed, he puts the shirt upon the bed, he pulls out the pins which hold the shirt folded, he unfolds the shirt, he takes his studs, pasigas la ĉemizajn butonojn per lahe passes the studs through the but-butontruojn.

lasas siajn ŝelkojn fali de sur siaj He lets his suspenders fall from his malvestas sian noktan veston, faras paketaĵon el ĝi, jetas ĝin sur la liton.

i prenas la puran ĉemizon, surmetas gin, ordigas ĝin, butonumas la cemizajn kolumon kajhe buttons the neck and wristbands, manumojn,

aj fine reordigas la ŝelokjn.

shoulders, he takes off his night shirt, he makes a bundle of it,

he throws it upon the bed. He takes his clean shirt, he puts it on, he arranges it,

and finally readjusts his suspenders.

a infano prenas la koluman skatolon, The child takes his collarbox, malfermas ĝin, elekatas bonstatan kolumon, e ĝin el la skatolo, refermas la skatolon, he recloses the box, fleksemigas la butontruojn de la kol-he limbers the buttonholes of the columo.

he opens it, he chooses a collar in good condition, he takes it out of the box,

i prenas meze la kolumon, i pasigas ĝin malantaŭ la kolon, i butonumas ĝin al la ĉemiza kolumo, i butonumas unu ekstremon antaûe, i marforte tiras sur la alia ekstremo, i butonumas la duan sur la unuan, i ellasas la kolumon.

He takes the collar by the middle, he passes it behind his neck, he buttons it to the collar of his shirt, he buttons one end in front, he pulls slightly upon the other end, he buttons the second upon the first, he lets go the collar.

بة prenas purajn manumojn, i almetas manumain butonojn, he puts on his cuffbuttons, i fikṣas la manumojn al la ĉemiza mani-he fastens the cuffs to the shirtsleeves.

He takes clean cuffs,

La infano prenas sian kravaton, i sin direktas al la spegulo, li haltiĝas antaŭ la spegulo, kaj la spegulo reflextas lian bildon.

The child takes his necktie, he goes to the looking-glass. he stops before the glass, and the glass reflects his image. Li portas la kravaton al la kolo, He carries the necktie to his neck, li pasigas la kravaton malantaû la kol-he passes the tie behind his collar, umo.

li aranĝas ĝin en ĝian lokon, li krucigas la kravaton, li kunligas la kravaton, li kunpremas la banton, li suprenpuŝas la banton ĝis la kolumo, li ellasas la kravaton.

Li regardas en la spegulon, por vidi se la kravato estas bone metita. La banto al li ne konvenas li defaras ĝin, li penas fari alian banton.

Li regardas ankoraŭ en la spegulon, lividas ke, tiu banto estas tute malretka, li ne ŝatas tion tial ke li ne havas multe da paciencon, tamen li persistas kaj fine sukcesas.

Li prenas kravatpinglon, li pikas ĝin en la kravaton, li rigardas ankoraŭ por vidi se tio al li iras bone, li lasas la spegulon kaj fine sukceas. he adjusts it to its place, he crosses the tie, he ties the tie, he tightens the knot, he pushes the knot up to the collar. he lets go the tie.

He looks into the glass, in order to see if the tie is well put on. The knot does not suit him, he undoes it, he tries another knot.

He looks again into the glass, he sees that, this knot is all crooked, he does not like that for he has not much patience, however he perseveres and finally succeeds.

He takes a scarfpin, he sticks it into the tie, he looks again in order to see if that becomes him, he leaves the glass and his image disappears from the glass.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

Kiu vokas la infanon?—La servistino vokas la infanon. Kie estas la infano?—La infano estas en sia dormocambro. Kie estas la dormocambro de la infano?—Gi estas en la unua etago.

Cu la servistino supreniras al la unua etaĝo?—Jes, ŝi supreniras tien.

Kien ŝi eniras?—Si eniras en liun ĉambron.

Kial ŝi eniras en tiun ĉambron?—Por veki la infanon. Cu la infano ne vekiĝus mem?—Tute ne, li dormus ĝis tagmezo. Cu la servismo iras al la fenestro?—Jes, ŝi iras tien.

Cu la kurtenoj estas malfermataj?—Ne, ili estas fermataj. Kion faras la servistino?—Si malfermas la kurtenojn.

Kial ŝi malfermas la kurtenojn?—Por enlasi la taglumon en la cambron.

Cu la servistino vokas la infanon?—Jes, ŝi lin vokas. Cu la infano aûdas ŝin? Ne lie ne aûdas ŝin ĉar li dormas. Kiel do (in what manner then) ŝi vekas la infanon? Alproksimiĝante a la lito, prenante lin per la ŝultro kaj skuante lin.

Cu la infano tuj vekiĝas kiam la servis ino lin skuas?—Ne, li

nur ŝajnas vekiĝi.

Kion li faras?—Li malfermas la okulojn, oscedas kaj sin streĉas, sed remetinte kapon sur la kapkusenon li baldaŭ ekodormas de nove.

Cu la servistino lasas lin dormi?—Ne, ŝi lin skuas pli forte el

la unua fojo.

Kiam vekiĝas la infano vere?—Kiam la servistino lin forte

For information about Esperanto write to Mr. B. Papot, 1038 Jackson Blv., Chicago, Ill.

Talk About Books

EDUCATION AND NATIONAL CHARACTER. By H. C. King, F. G. Peabody, Lyman Abbott, Washington Gladden, Shailer Mathews, and others, Chicago. Published by the Religious Education Association. Pp. 319.

The papers in this volume were read at the Fifth General Convention of the Religious Education Association, held at Washington, D. C., Feb. 11-13, 1908. These papers were selected from the large member presented at the Convention as being those most directly related to the theme of the Convention 'The Relation of Moral and Religious Education to the Life of the Nation." As products of this organization they are naturally keen and liberal in their treatment of religion in its larger usefulness. They deal with the problems arising in social work in the large cities, in the college environment, in work among the negroes, in the public schools, in the Sunday School, and in the schools of theology. To anyone who is interested in contemporary problems of American life there are many contributions in this book to attract and hold the attention.

CONFESSIONS OF A RAILEOAD SIGNALMAN. By James O. Fagan. Boston: Houghton, M'fflin Company. Pp. 181. \$1.00.

This is a most unusual book from a most unusual source. Mr. Fagan, a Scotchman fifty years of age, after experiences on the sea, in South America and in South Africa, came to America, and for the last twenty-seven years has been a railroad man, for twenty-two of them in the signal tower at Cambridge. He knows of railroad accidents and their causes, as a practical railroad man, and presents, in the chapters of this book a human document vivified by anecdotes and illustrations of the kind one does not forget. The articles have resulted in an invitation from President Eliot to lecture on Railroading at Harvard University this winter, and have called forth from President Roosevelt and various railroad presidents and managers letters of high commendation. The thing is earnest, clear, direct, convincing, and is said to have done much already for further promoting progress toward an ideal relation between railroad operators and the employers.

THE SRORY OF THE NEW ENGLAND WHALERS. By John R. Spears. The Macmillan Company: New York. Pp. 418. \$1.50.

This is the stuff of which literature is made: a comment by which no criticism of the book is intended, for it is frankly a chronicle and pretends only to present the raw materials of the subject. It carries the story from 1651—and the exploits of Samuel Mulford to 1883, when the whale fishery fleet was of the greatest. While it is filled with exact information of the sort which the historian and the statistician enjoy, it also has many chapters which are exceedingly interesting on account of the live story of detailed adventure in the northern seas. Ten full page illustrations help to make the account vivid.

THROUGH THE GATES OF THE NETHERLANDS. By Mary E. Waller.
Boston: Little, Brown and Company. Pp. 337.

Of writing books of travel there seems no end, but the globe trotters narrative is often made presentable only by the pictures with which it is embellished. A book with a genuine style of its own, however, is like an impressionist picture,—you feel its atmosphere. Material facts of streets and houses and highways are transformed by an imaginative temperament into an enchanted country and even commonplace experiences of a "wholly domestic" sort take on an unwarranted gayety of their own. The author "Through the Gates of the Netherlands" could doubtless win friends for any land that she might describe and one who travels with her in the delectable volume will see the country in all its picturesqueness, getting vivid impressions and withal a sense of refined and joyous companionship, which is not the least of the pleasures of foreign travel. is a fascinating quality about the book, whether it discusses the creaking, gyrating windmill in the "Don Quixote Country," glimpses for us the lights and shadows of Rembrandt's Amsterdam through its dusky and mysterious canals, takes us sight-seeing among the country folk, or leads us over the lonely dunes by the great gray sea. Quite in keeping with the simple binding of the book, enriched with the Netherland Coat of Arms in red and gold, are the twenty artistic illustrations, which really illustrate, and make the volume especially acceptable as a gift book.



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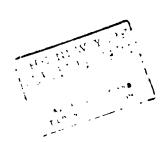
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Haarlem Seen from Dunes near Overveen. By Jakob Ruisdael. In the Berlin Museum. (See "Dutch Art and Artista." page 366.)

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No. 3.



THE sentencing of three labor leaders and officers of the American Federation of Labor to terms in jail for contempt of court was a startling surprise to the great majority of the people. Messrs. Gompers and Mitchell are highly respected and popular citizens, members of the National Civic Federation and prominent speakers at national gatherings and conferences on industrial and social questions. They are not "radical" reformers, but believers in trade union aims and trade union methods. Will they be sent to jail as lawbreakers and criminals? Are they guilty of deliberate, defiant resistance to court orders? Have they claimed inadmissible privileges which are denied to all other citizens, or have they merely exercised their legal rights?

The appeal that has been taken from the judgment of Judge Wright of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia will settle some, if not all, of the issues involved in this sensational case. It is likely that some of the issues will require legislative, not judicial, consideration and action—that is, that new laws and amendments of existing ones will prove to be necessary in the interest of labor and justice.

The facts of the case may be very briefly indicated. The American Federation of Labor, which claims a following of over a million unionists, had organized a boycott against a firm of stove manufacturers. The name of the firm had been placed on the "unfair list" of the Federation and its affiliated unions. The firm obtained in the equity court of the District of Columbia, the place of publication

of the organ of the Federation, an injunction restraining Mr. Gompers, the president, Mr. John Mitchell, the first vice-president, and other officers of the Federation from continuing the boycott, from keeping the firm's name on the "unfair list"-or the "We Don't Patronize" list-and from seeking in any other way to injure its business. The injunction was sweeping in its terms and was vigorously attacked by the defendants and other labor men as an unprecedented, unwarranted and illegal interference with free speech and free publication. They declared that some clauses of the injunction order "could not be obeyed" without surrendering all rights of discussion, criticism and agitation. An appeal was taken from the injunction—and it is still pending. If the injunction was too broad and too restrictive of personal freedom it will be modified. If under established rules of equity it was proper, it will be upheld, and in that case Congress will be urgently appealed to by labor and its sympathizers to pass certain bills limiting and more clearly defining the power of the courts to issue injunctions against unionists, strikers, and others engaged in industrial disputes.

The contempt question is distinct from that of the validity of the injunction itself. For the defendants, it is alleged, in many ways and at various times violated the order in several particulars, notably by editorial and oral discussions of the injunction, protests against it, assertions of the right to boycott, hints to others that they are not bound by the injunction, etc. The defendants assert that they never intended to "defy" the court, but that so much of the injunction as they possibly violated by speeches and in editorials was null and void in any case because contrary to the constitutional guaranties of free speech and free publication. If they are right in this fundamental contention, they will never serve their sentences. Void court orders, like void statutes, need not be obeyed, though the disobedience is necessarily at the risk of the violators. But if the highest court sustains not only the injunction but also the sentences for contempt, the question whether the sentences are, even if just, too severe will be raised, and also the question whether the President can pardon the defendants. Lawyers differ as to this right of pardon in contempt cases growing out of civil litigation and equity proceedings.

Meantime the organized workmen are demanding not only executive elemency but the passage of legislation by Congress legalizing some of the practices now often enjoined by judges, limiting the power of the courts in industrial cases and in contempt proceedings, and providing for trial by jury in the remaining classes of contempt cases.



The Demand for a Cleaner Press

A movement which, it is to be devoutly hoped, may not languish and die is that started in New York by men high in church, business and civic circles for a cleaner and more respectable press. A sensational murder case with scandalous features bearing on the relations between the sexes was the immediate occasion for the effort, but it is intended to work for wider and lasting results.

The aims and specific demands of the citizens in question are set forth in this quotation from an admirable letter that has been sent to editors and others:

"The aim of securing newspapers for our homes which shall at all times be free from lewd or suggestive articles detrimental to morals, offensive to decency, and damaging to self-respect is one which all admit to be a desirable one. Some might perhaps say that it is possible to enjoy it at all times by simply buying only good newspapers.

"But, unfortunately, there come periods when overweening public interest and unworthy public curiosity provoke the editors of even some of the best of our journals to overstep the mark and to lay before us and the modest home circle, including the tender children of the schools, libidinous details of criminality which are revolting even to men charged with the punishment of those who prey upon society. We attempt to escape it and close our door to it for a short period, only to find that to keep in touch with our usual social business needs we must continue our patronage of a journal which we are ashamed to bring home. Then our school children or others must have the objectionable articles and detestable headlines thrust upon their sight in the public conveyances or other places. * * Nothing like a censorship is thought of; only

elementary principles for the protection of the home are expected to be applied."

The newspapers are not asked to refrain from printing the news in any case, but merely to refrain from emphasizing and exploiting certain phases of life as they appear in criminal and degrading cases. The demand might well have been made stronger and broader, but possibly public opinion is not sufficiently aroused to encourage an effective campaign against the manufacturing of news, unnecessary invasions of privacy, misrepresentation and other vices that characterize certain sections of the press. The beginning is a modest one, and if advertisers and citizens of light and leading will lend the effort their support a great deal may be accomplished in a quiet way. The newspapers are in many respects so great and so valuable, and their progress in many directions has been so splendid, that there is little excuse for the sensationalism, vice-flaunting and "faking" that are still indulged in by many of them. And the further reforms that are desirable can be enforced by the more thoughtful of the readers and the more public-spirited of the advertisers.



Publicity and Railroad Control

The federal Supreme Court has decided, in the so-called Harriman cases, involving consolidations and purchase of railroad stock by other railroad stock, that the interstate commerce commission has but a limited power of investigation of individual officers or directors of carriers engaged in interstate trade. It may not enter upon "fishing" expeditions in order to bring out facts that may or may not bear on rate making or other functions and duties of carriers. It may not invade privacy where there is no necessity for the invasion, where no specific offense is alleged, and where the information sought would be inadmissible as evidence in any complaint before the commission.

This view considerably limits the power of the commission to prevent reckless financiering by railroads or the reaping of private gain from stock and bond deals ostensibly made in the interest of the railroads. The commissioners are inclined to believe that the work of control and regulation will not be seriously hampered by the decision, although they were distinctly surprised by it and although three dissenting justices declared emphatically that it changed the commerce act and restricted its scope and utility in a way never intended by Congress. Experience alone will determine whether the power of investigating individuals, in the absence of specific complaints of violation of the commerce law, is necessary to the work of the commission. If it be necessary Congress will doubtless amend the act and restore the power lost by the commission. Public policy, it would seem, demands the fullest publicity in railroad transactions, and if the law has not provided for it, an oversight has been committed.

This is the more apparent since the administration and President-elect Taft, as well as the progressive elements in Congress, favor legislation for the supervision of the issue of all railroad and common carrier securities by the commerce commission. A bill for such regulation, for the purpose of doing away with stock watering and juggling, with overvaluation and deception, has been introduced by Senator Dolliver, and the press generally indorses its principle. If securities of railroads ought not to be issued without official inquiry and permission, surely it is not unreasonable to ask that the supervising body be given power to obtain full information concerning stock deals by carriers, personal profit of officers from such deals, and the like.

The general feeling is that our entire railroad legislation needs revision. The railroads wish to be exempted from the operation of the anti-trust act and to be permitted to enter into traffic agreements subject to the approval of the commission. Many hold that they should be accorded this privilege, but that, in return, they should accept an en-

larged measure of control, both as to rate making and the issuing of securities. The new Congress will have the problem tolerably ripe for solution.



Conservation and the First Steps

Another congress has been held by the governors, legislators and citizens interested in the conservation of the nation's natural resources, and further discussion of the question has made the immediate needs as clear as the general policy of the movement has been. To conserve properly is to know the present condition of our natural growth, the dangers that threaten it, the wastes that need checking, and the proper safeguards that should be adopted. Accordingly an "inventory" of our natural resources has been decided upon and in part already made.

The reports of the investigators afford no ground for alarm, but they show the necessity of thrift and care nevertheless. The destruction of forests must be stopped; the mountain streams must be protected, the water power of the country prevented from falling under private or monopolistic control. There is appalling waste in mining, and neglect, or carelessness, or false economy, results in destructive forest fires. There is terrible waste of human life in all industries, and particularly in mining. All these things are integral parts of the conservation movement.

Closely connected with it is the problem of extending, improving and connecting our waterways. There has been much confusion in our river and harbor legislation, and no one denies that in spite of all legislative scrutiny millions have been annually "sunk" in unprofitable improvements. It has become necessary to elaborate a great plan of canal construction and river development, and nothing should be done save as it may fit in with the general plan. The lakesto-gulf project of a ship canal has received an impetus from the action of Illinois approving a proposal to issue \$20,000,000 worth of state bonds for the extension of the Chi-

cago drainage canal. Other projects are under active discussion, and all must be treated as features of a systematic and national plan of waterway cultivation.

Such a plan implies a permanent body to pass on proposals and decide on the first steps to be taken in carrying it into effect. Congress is therefore urged to provide for a conservation commission of experts and to appropriate money for its ordinary and other expenses. Resolutions have also been passed in favor of a \$500,000,000 bond issue by the national government for canal and river improvement, but to this there is decided opposition. There are those who prefer annual appropriations for this work from the current revenues, but the chief objection to bond legislation is that it would be premature—that no plans have been formulated and few agree as to the immediate and wise use of such money.

The means will be provided in liberal measure when the time comes, and meanwhile, it is pointed out, Congress can help the movement by passing the pending forest reserve bill applicable to the White Mountains and the Appalachians, by creating the conservation commission and by postponing all river and harbor improvements that bear delay. And, in addition, anything that resists monopoly, encroachment on the national domain, grabbing of lands or timber, taken for conservation in the interest of the whole people.

"Genuine" Tariff Revision.

The great question before the country, the topic of animated discussion everywhere, is the character of the revision which the tariff law is likely to undergo next spring. When the Ways and Means Committee of the House opened its hearings there was much skepticism everywhere. The adverse utterances of certain "standpatters" abundantly justified that skepticism. It was asserted that the Dingley tariff was still satisfactory; that few changes were needed to adapt it to present industrial conditions; that too much tinkering would disturb business and retard the return of prosperity.

The first hearings were farcical from the viewpoint of the liberal revisionists, as most of the witnesses pleaded for higher duties and resented any suggestion of downward re vision. The consumers were not represented, while some of the best known advocates of low rates did not wish to testify, saying it was all futile and ludicrous since there was no intention of permitting real revision in the interest of the people or of freer trade.

But latterly a change has come over the spirit of the whole situation. Genuine revision is now promised, and even the standpatters are supposed to have surrendered. Mr. Taft, the president-elect, in a series of notable speeches, has taken a strong hand in favor of thorough and honest revision. He favors proper protection, and even the raising of present rates where there is actual necessity for it; but in the main, he holds, rates should be lowered, for in many industries the need of artificial fostering has long since disappeared.

The schedules under special attack are those covering iron and steel products, hides, lumber, sugar, and several others. Many experts and manufacturers have flatly declared that there is no necessity for steel duties, and while they have been contradicted, the weight of the testimony is on their side. Again, the boot and shoe manufacturers disclaim any desire for protection, so long as they can obtain free raw material. Interesting controversies have grown out of these "radical" opinions, and coming as they do from supposed beneficiaries of high protection they are particularly surprising to the standpatters. The House committee is distinctly puzzled, and it is not probable that the reductions they will recommend will be drastic. It is considered reasonable enough to "err on the side of safety," provided the underlying principles of the revising process are clear and certain. Then, too, the task will be greatly complicated by the revenue situation. The deficit is still growing, and may exceed \$100,000,000 for the current fiscal year. Duties not needed for protection may in some cases—as in that of

sugar—be useful for revenue producing purposes. Usually lower duties mean increased revenue, but in some instances reductions might entail loss of income at a time when the national government is facing shortages and thinking hard of possible new taxes.

However, one lesson of the tariff hearings that several influential business organizations and leading newspapers have drawn and emphasized is likely to change our methods of tariff revision. The demand for an expert, permanent, nonpartisan, business commission to study schedules and duties, make inquiries abroad and at home, "scientifically" determine differences in labor cost and other elements of the problem, and to recommend from time to time modifications of the duties to Congress, is steadily growing. No delay is advocated as regards the next revision, but for the future, it is insisted, better and more trustworthy methods must be adopted. Political committees cannot get at the truth and are often misled by imposing tables and alleged evidence. Business men would not be easily misled, and their work would not alarm the manufacturers and merchants to the same extent as that of men who must think of elections and party interests. There is no reason why, under protection uniformly and scientifically applied, the liberal protectionists argue, revision talk should be disturbing and detrimental to business.



Will the Lords Reform Themselves

A select committee of the British House of Lords, of which ex-Premier Rosebery was chairman, has made a report on the question of upper-house reform. The report is timely, for the issue of "mending or ending the lords" is to be paramount in the next general election. This is the decision of the Liberal government and it is the result of recent political events.

The lords rejected the so-called licensing bill, the principal government measure of the late session. The bill was

a temperance measure essentially, and it was also designed to put an end to the vicious policy of recognizing vested rights in saloon licenses. It provided for increased regulation of the liquor traffic, local option, and the right, after a period of years, to vote saloons in or out at the will of the citizens. Under the pressure from special interests the lords killed this bill and bitterly offended the religious and temperance forces of the country.

Several other important liberal measures have been rejected by the lords since the return of that party to power, and the question whether an "irresponsible" chamber shall continue to veto legislation passed by a representative body in response to popular demands has once more assumed an acute form.

One section of the liberal party has favored a dissolution of parliament at this time and an appeal to the country. Premier Asquith has declared that such a course would confirm the claims of the lords and would necessitate frequent elections whenever the liberals were in power, as the lords are overwhelmingly conservative and intensely partisan, taking orders from the leader of the tory party and being incapable of rising to a level of independence and impartiality.

However, all agree that a general election is to be expected within a year or so, although the present parliament has four more years of life under the law. The government will soon present a "radical" budget, involving new taxes and higher burdens on certain existing sources of revenue, and this will arouse opposition in the lords. A radical franchise bill, abolishing plural voting, simplifying registration, conferring the parliamentary suffrage on women, and introducing other changes, will also be offered. This, too, will invite a veto from the lords, and it is highly probable that dissolution of parliament will be the liberal move in the event of such a veto.

The outcome of such a struggle no one can foretell. The lords affect great confidence, and profess to be carrying

out the popular will. The liberals, they say, have forfeited the confidence of the country, and it is idle for them to talk about "irresponsibility" of the upper-house, as that house is now in fact more responsive to or representative of public sentiment than the Commons. The by-elections, it is true, are still going anti-liberal, and the government has cause for apprehension. Though it cannot be blamed for all its failure, the fact that its record is rather barren militates against it nevertheless.

Meantime the lords admit that some reform of their chamber is advisable. The special committee referred to above would reduce the numerical strength of the chamber, introduce an elective element—the whole English peerage electing some 200 of their number to sit in parliament, just as the Irish and Scotch peers elect representative lords either for life or for the parliamentary term, and would give seats in the chamber to distinguished public servants like ex-premiers, ex-ministers, etc. These proposals have met with little favor among the liberals and radicals, the argument being that the changes would not affect the character or complexion of the lords and therefore would leave matters as they are as regards the prospects of liberal legislation. The tory organs regard the proposals as a great concession to democracy and progress. The lords as a body have not yet expressed themselves on the subject.



The First Ottoman Parliament

It was in July, 1908, that the amazing Turkish revolution—bloodless, yet singularly complete—took place. The young Turks, with their splendid organization among high and low army officers, secured control of affairs and compelled the sultan and his court clique to revive the constitution of 1876, summon a parliament, promulgate an election law and grant liberty to his subjects. Difficulties at once arose, domestic and external, and many doubted whether the parliament would ever meet. Had war broken

out in the Balkans the constitution might have been annulled a second time; but the ability and firmness, the genuine patriotism and sagacity of the Young Turk leaders proved equal to the sudden crisis and averted hostilities. The reform movement was checked for a time, but no reaction followed. The elections were postponed once, but in November and December the situation was sufficiently improved to warrant "going ahead," and the balloting proceeded in orderly fashion. Here and there complaints of interference, of gerrymandering, were made by non-Turks, but all admit that such cases were rare and inevitable. The election on the whole was fair and peaceful, and late in December the parliament assembled and was cordially addressed by the sultan. All the races and nationalities of the heterogeneous empire are represented in the popular chamber as well as in the appointive senate, and in picturesqueness the First Ottoman parliament of this generation does not vield even to the Russian duma.

Will the parliament live? Will the sultan be true and loyal to the constituents? Is the reform regime safe? Only the future can answer such questions as these. Mistakes will be made, differences and antagonisms will develop, racial and other problems will arise. But there is every reason to hope that Turkey will not revert to government by tyranny, corruption, espionage and plunder. The army is apparently on the side of the liberals, and the commercial classes have everything to gain and nothing to lose from a system of free and just government. The peasants and illiterate workmen may be ignorant and indifferent, but no real or permanent interest binds them to the old regime, and even if they remain benevolently neutral the cause of the reactionaries is lost. Only spies, official thieves, grafters and licensed plunderers and robbers can regret the disappearance of the autocratic regime.

The parliament has made an excellent impression and a good beginning. It has the approval and sympathy of the world. It has undertaken the settlement of the Balkan

problem in a spirit of justice and reason. It will endeavor to readjust taxation, finance and expenditures. It will promote popular education and honest industry. Its success will mean the advance and elevation of Turkey. Democracy the world over wishes it well.



Italy's Appalling Disaster

The earthquake in Sicily and Calabria was one of those overwhelming calamities which leave man stunned and speechless. It is impossible to reason or philosophize about convulsions and disturbances of nature. Arguments on the value of pain and evil as forms of discipline seem pointless and irrelevant at such times. The sudden destruction of tens or hundreds of thousands of men, women and children, of homes, churches, convents, ships, railroads, factories, stores, with the despair, anguish, misery that such destruction entails on the survivors and their kin and fellowmen, can enforce no moral to finite intelligence. We stand baffled and perplexed, and the only thing that is clear and certain is the practical, immediate duty of succor, relief, sympathy, helpfulness.

Humanity is happily always equal to its duty in such emergencies. There are inevitable delays, defects of organization, shortcomings, but the spirit is noble and worthy. The response to the need and cry of stricken Italy has been generous, and what can be done has been and is still being done to prevent starvation, illness and suffering.

The loss of life in the earthquake and tidal wave may never be accurately known. But the estimates are appalling and show the catastrophe to have been among the worst in recorded history. We still shudder at the accounts of the fate of Pompeii and Herculaneun, but that calamity pales almost into insignificance beside this one of our own day. The affected area was singularly small—only a few square miles—but the fatalities were unprecedented. This was due largely to the extreme congestion of the area, especially in

the cities that were devastated and destroyed. In all probability Messina and Reggio will be rebuilt, as they have great natural advantages. The danger of earthquakes will, however, remain serious in that section, for these internal disturbances are the result of sea water reaching the zone of high temperature and becoming transformed into steam. There are "faults" or cracks in the earth's surface in many places, and until these are filled up quakes are inevitable from time to time. Humanity, through necessity largely, but also because of its courage and optimism and aversion to change, remains in areas subject to catastrophic visitations. and no thoughtful persons will advocate the abandonment of such rich fields and garden spots as are found in Sicily, and Calabria. After all, in the midst of life we are in death, always and everywhere.



Note and Comment

The International Prison Congress is coming to this country in 1910 and Secretary Root has asked Congress for \$50,000 to show the European delegates some of the things achieved in the United States in improved methods of dealing with crime. In the nearly forty years since the first congress met, the United States has made some interesting and important contributions to penological science. It has introduced the indeterminate sentence, developed a reformatory system for adults, shown through suspended sentence and probation the possibility of correcting many thousands of offenders without imprisonment. Finally, it has established children's courts, a Chicago idea which is rapidly spreading over the United States and Europe.

The program of questions for Washington, while dealing with matters of world-wide interest, will be especially attractive to Americans. A prominent feature will be the attention devoted to pre-

ventive and child-saving agencies.

Now that the United States has the cooperation of European governments in this congress, Secretary Root is seeking to secure the cooperation of the Central and South American republics.

This 1910 meeting will be the eighth since its organization in 1871, when Congress passed a resolution authorizing President Grant to send a commissioner abroad to secure the cooperation of European governments in the prevention and treatment of crime. E. C. Wines, the distinguished penologist, was appointed first commissioner from the United States. Since that first meeting in London, other congresses have met in Stockholm, Rome, St. Petersburg, Paris, Brussels, and Budapest. They have studied criminal law, environment, heredity, alcoholism, administration of courts, treatment of offenders, criminal labor, international comity, and international law.

CARL SCHURZ ON WAR.

In the last volume of Carl Schurz's reminiscences there is a dissertation on the alleged elevating influence of war which is abundantly sustained by reason and experience. It follows after a discussion of some of the incidents of Sherman's march to the sea, and a quotation from the general to the effect that if the best young men were incorporated in an army and sent to live in the enemy's country they would lose all principle and self-restraint.

Schurz, who saw much of war himself, commends the remark to those who speak of it as a great moral agency that kindles the noblest instincts and offsets the effects of a "vile, groveling materialism." He does not say that noble traits and a lofty heroism have failed to manifest themselves during war. That is beside the point. But he shows that the logic concerning the need of war to develop the traits and the heroism is contemptibly weak. The slaves of this "romantic fancy" will meet "one hundred men ready to storm a hostile battery, when they will meet only one with moral courage to stand up alone against the world." It is a mistake to suppose that bravery in battle is the highest bravery, and as for the "gross materialism" of peace it flourishes most luxuriantly when war has tilled the soil for it, when there are the greatest opportunities for capitalizing patriotism and exploiting the government for private gain.

Schurz does not argue that our civil war should never have been waged, but he asks very pertinently if the Union and emancipation would have been any the less valuable if they had been secured by peaceful means. He strikes hard at the confused reasoning and confounds the instrument with the object, and that seems to make the noblity of an act that is associated with war derive

its character from war.

Peace abounds in examples of self-denial and sacrifice that require certainly all the fortitude that is exhibited in war without holding out the slightest prospect of glory and renown, and life would still call for all the sterling qualities of heart and soul if the last battle had been fought by armed men. It is clear also that the assumption of a necessary hostility between nations that must have its expression in war and keep us ever preparing for war is as weak as the logic to which we have referred. Given a proper tribunal with adequate powers, there is no international question that cannot be settled peacefully, and if the energy and enthusiasm that is devoted to military affairs were turned into other channels it would be far more profitable for the world in every sense of the word.—

Chicago Record-Herald.

For the celebration next fall of the 300th anniversary of the exploration of the Hudson river by Henrik Hudson in 1609, the people of Holland, under royal patronage, will send to New York a reproduction of the Half Moon in which the original journey was made.

Sunday, December 20, was observed in many churches in the United States as "Peace Sunday," in accordance with the recommendation originally made by the British Peace Society to churches of Great Britain for such observance each year on the Sunday preceding Christmas.



What is International Law?

By Dr. Henry Wade Rogers Dean of Yale University Law School.

T is highly desirable in a nation such as ours that the citizens should have a proper knowledge concerning International Law. Under a republican form of government the authorities of a nation are not much inclined to adopt a foreign policy, or a domestic one, which runs counter to the public opinion of the country as they understand it. Public opinion ought therefore to be in any nation, and particularly in a nation like ours, an intelligent opinion based upon a just conception of international rights and duties. Again and again it has happened that popular feeling based on entire misapprehension of the merits of a controversy has forced governments most unwillingly to enter upon wars which should never have occurred, and which never would have occurred if the people had had a true conception of the rights and duties of nations in their intercourse with each other. The people of the United States, in particular, should be encouraged to give attention to the study of International Mr. Secretary Root has said that while it cannot be

^{*}The first article of this series, "The European Equilibrium and the Peace of the World," by Victor S. Yarros, appeared in the September Chautauquan; the second article, by the same author, "Danger Points About the Globe," in the October number. In November, "The Story of the Peace Movement," by Benjamin F. Trueblood; December, "Armies the Real Promoters of Peace," by Col. W. C. Church; January, "The Human Harvest," by David Starr Jordan; and "International Aspects of Socialism," by A. M. Simons.

expected that the whole body of any people will study International Law, yet a sufficient number can readily become sufficiently familiar with it to lead and form public opinion in every community in our country upon all important international questions as they arise. The number of those who can devote any large amount of time to a careful study of International Law must, in any community, necessarily continue to be small. But the number of those who can and should give some portion of their time to an intelligent study of the subject is not small. In every public library, even in our smallest communities, some book or books on International Law ought to be on the shelves. And intelligent men and women should not be content without some knowledge of a subject so interesting and important.

But the purpose of this article is not so much to emphasize the importance of International Law as to explain what the term International Law means. That, strange as it may appear to the casual reader, is a task of some difficulty. Scholars are not entirely agreed as to the answer to be given to the question, "What is International Law?" It is easy to say in a general way that the term International Law is used to denote the rules of conduct which modern civilized and sovereign states regard as obligatory on them in their relations with one another. But that would hardly be accepted as a satisfactory and sufficient explanation of the matter. The Lord Chief-Justice of England in a well known case, the Franconia Case, declared that International Law was nothing more nor less than the collection of usages which the civilized states had agreed to observe in their relations with one another. And in the Fur Seal Arbitration Sir Charles Russell, afterwards Chief-Justice of England, asserted that the law of nations incorporated many principles of ethics and of natural law, but that only such portions of ethics and of natural law as the nations agreed should be incorporated formed any part of that law. By the word "agreed," he explained, he did not mean that there was necessarily a formal, or express, or written agreement but only that an agreement had been manifested in any mode in

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which it was possible for an agreement to be manifested, and that it might be manifested by acquiescence.

We shall, however, understand more clearly what International Law is if we consider

- 1. By whom International Law is Made.
- 2. To whom International Law is Applicable.
- 3. How International Law is Applied.

It may properly be remarked at the beginning of our consideration of the subject that the term International Law was proposed by Jeremy Bentham in 1780 as the most appropriate English designation of what had previously been known as the Law of Nations. This suggestion of Bentham's was received with general favor and has been adopted with practical unanimity by English speaking peoples.

By whom is International Law Made? The Constitution of the United States vests the law-making power of the National government in the Congress. Under the constitutions of the several states their respective legislatures have authority to enact laws which are binding within their respective boundaries. So the British Parliament can legislate for the British people, and the National Assembly for the people of France, and the Bundewath and the Reichstag for the German Empire, and the Cortes for the people in Spain. But no one nation can enact a law which can bind another sovereign state and no international parliament exists with authority to enact laws which shall be equally binding upon all states.

The time was when Rome was mistress of the world. During the period that her domination continued there existed a power which was superior to that of all other states, and which determined what should be the relations to each other of the various political communities under the Roman rule. Disputes between states were then settled by appeals to Cæsar. After the Cæsars the Holy Roman Empire continued to determine international relations and to lay commands upon other states. The Papacy also came gradually to assert a similar prerogative. The pretended gift by Constantine of all the West to the Roman Pontiff consti-

tuted the basis of the claim that the Pope had a right "to give and to take away empires, kingdoms, princedoms, marquisates, duchies, countships, and the possessions of all men." With the coming of the Reformation the old order of things passed away and the nations ceased to recognize any common superior with a right to dictate commands to states which they are in duty bound to obey. Since the war with Spain it has become a common thing to say that the United States is now a world power. It is quite unnecessary to explain that it is not a world power in the sense that it has a right superior to that of other states to lay commands upon all nations or upon any other nation. It is a principle of modern International Law that all sovereign states are equal, and that no common superior exists.

This fact has led some publicists to deny that what is called International Law has any existence in the sense in which they understand the term law. John Austin and those who think with him conceive that laws are commands or rules of conduct laid down for the guidance of an intelligent being by an intelligent being having power over him. And as there is no nation which has power over all other nations there is no nation which can lay down commands or rules of conduct which other nations must obey. The limits of this article preclude any extended discussion of this phase of the subject. It must suffice to say that all juridical scholars do not accept Austin's definition of what law is. The latest writers insist that while there is no specially appointed and recognized international legislator nevertheless International Law is and has its being and is not improperly termed law.

The answer to the question "By whom is International Law Made?" is that there is no other author of the rules by which the relations of nations are regulated than the associated states themselves. No human power superior to them exists. As ex-Secretary Olney has said, "Rules upon which all states are united assume the shape of genuine international laws." The practically unanimous consent of civilized states is the basis of genuine International Law.

In the case of the Municipal Law of a particular state a statute may be enacted by a majority vote of the law-making body if it is approved by the executive. But very serious reasons exist which prevent International Law from being made by a majority of the states or even by two-thirds or three-quarters of them. A state may justly object to the determination of international rules by the action of any less than the whole number of states.

In view of what has just been said it seems incontrovertible that the Monroe Doctrine is no part of International Law. By that doctrine the United States has announced that "the American continents by the free and independent condition which they have assumed and maintain are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European powers," and that our government will regard any attempt on the part of European powers "to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety." When in 1895 President Cleveland reasserted the Doctrine in the dispute with Great Britain over affairs in Venezuela the British Prime Minister was correct in declaring that the Monroe Doctrine did not embody any principle of International Law which "is founded on the general consent of nations," and that "no statesman, however eminent, and no nation, however powerful, are competent to insert into the code of International Law a novel principle which was never recognized before and which has not since been accepted by the government of any other country."

To whom is International Law Applicable? The Municipal Laws of any particular state are the rules of conduct which that particular state requires persons to observe who are within its territorial limits and subject to its jurisdiction. International Laws are rules of conduct which are applicable to sovereign states in their relations with each other. As individuals are members of a human society called a state, so civilized states are members of an international society, or International Circle, and together they constitute "the family of nations."

Publicists tell us that International Law as matter of scientific appreciation, resting upon Territorial Sovereignty. dates from the Peace of Westphalia, 1648. The original sphere of International Law was restricted therefore to the states which belonged to the new European system which that peace brought into being. President Woolsey in his treatise, which first appeared in 1860, defined International Law as "the aggregate of the rules which Christian States acknowledge as obligatory in their relation to each other, and to each other's subjects," and he went on to say that his definition could not be justly widened to include the law which governed Christian states in their intercourse with savage or half-civilized tribes, or even with nations on a higher level, but lying outside of their forms of civilization. And Hall, a leading English authority, says: "It is scarcely necessary to point out that as International Law is a product of the special civilization of modern Europe, and forms a highly artificial system of which the principles cannot be supposed to be understood or recognized by countries differently civilized, such states only can be presumed to be subject to it as are inheritors of that civilization." But other than Christian states are now recognized as members of the family of nations and as such are subjects of International Law. Turkey was so recognized in 1856, by the Treaty of Paris, and Japan and China have been like recognition. since accorded a The Supreme Court of the United States in 1870 said: "The full reciprocity, which, by the general rule of international law, prevails between Christian states in the exercise of jurisdiction over the subjects or citizens of each other in their respective territories, is not admitted between a Christian state and a Mohammedan state in the same circumstances."

The states which are subjects of International Law are sovereign states. No one of the states which compose the United States has under International Law a right to send or receive ambassadors or to make treaties, to declare war or make peace. All the foreign affairs of the United States must be conducted through the national government in

which is vested the powers of external sovereignty. If a state desires to have intercourse with other states, International Law requires that there should be some authority within it capable of pledging it to a given course of conduct. International Law does not know the State of New York, or that of Pennsylvania, for no single state of the United States has any power in respect to external or foreign affairs.

How is International Law Applied? The Municipal Law of a particular state is applied by the courts of that state. But in the case of International Law there has been no International Court to which international disputes had to be or could be submitted. All such differences have had to be settled by negotiations conducted by the diplomatic officers of the respective states, and if they could not be settled in that way, then the matters in dispute have had to be settled by force or referred to arbitration. The First Hague Conference which assembled in 1800 provided for a Permanent Court at The Hague, but as the nations have not vet agreed upon a general treaty of obligatory arbitration, the provision that was thus made is little more than a method of referring matters to this "court" for arbitration when two disputing nations are disposed so to do. The Second Hague Conference which met in 1907 took steps which it is hoped will within a few years lead to the creation by the nations of a Court of Arbitral Justice which will be a real International Court. The Central American States at a conference held in Washington in 1907 established a Central American Court of Justice and the Central American States have bound themselves to submit to it "all controversies or questions which may arise among them, of whatever nature and no matter what their origin may be, in case the respective departments of foreign affairs should not have been able to reach an understanding." The contracting states have also formally bound themselves to obey, and compel to be obeyed the orders of the Court, furnishing all the assistance necessary for their fulfilment.

The fact that there has been no International Court to pass upon disputed questions of International Law and

no international authority invested with power to compel obedience to its rules, and no pains and penalties which the law imposed for its violation as in the case of Municipal Law, has furnished additional reasons to those previously mentioned in another connection as leading some writers to deny that International Law is entitled to called low. In 1887 the Marquis of Salisbury, then British Premier, speaking in the House of Lords, said: "I think, my lords, we are misled in this matter by the facility with which we use the phrase International Law. International Law has not any existence in the sense in which the term law is usually understood. It depends upon the prejudices of writers of text-books. It can be enforced by no tribunal, and therefore to apply to it the phrase law is to some extent misleading." The limits assigned to this article do not permit us to enter into any extended discussion of this question. We must be content to say that there are after all real sanctions for the enforcement of International Law. Secretary Root has recently said: "A careful consideration of this question seems to lead to the conclusion that the difference between municipal and international law, in respect to existence of forces compelling obedience, is more apparent than real, and that there are sanctions for the enforcement of international law no less real and substantial than those which secure obedience to municipal law." It is quite true that there is no international sheriff. no policeman, no writ of execution, and that it is impossible to fine or imprison a nation or its officers for a violation of the rules of International Law. But it is well to remember that the force of law really lies for most people in the public opinion which prescribes it. Most men pay their debts and keep their contracts not thinking so much of the power of the sheriff and his writ of execution, as of the power of that public opinion which in every civilized community individuals are so unwilling to defy. Every civilized nation is sensitive to international public opinion, and is strongly inclined to pay deference to it and not to deny it. No civilized nation wishes to bring down upon itself the

world's condemnation, and it is as true of nations as of individuals that non-conformity to public opinion is inevitably followed by injury. The sanction of International Law thus lies in the power of international public opinion. - During the nineteenth century there were many international arbitrations and there was but one instance in which any difficulty occurred over a compliance with the award. And that was a case in which the arbitrator had exceeded the terms of the submission. The power of International Law is in the fact that it has behind it the public opinion of mankind. The framers of the Declaration of Independence thought that "a decent respect to the opinions of mankind" required them to declare the causes which impelled them to the separation. As the years advance the necessity of showing a decent respect to the opinions of mankind becomes more and not less obligatory upon all the nations of the earth. (For important additions to this article see Round Table page 426.)

The Sanction of International Law

By the Hon. Elihu Root Secretary of State.

NE accustomed to the administration of municipal law who turns his attention for the first time to the discussion of practical questions arising between nations and dependent from the rules of international law, must be struck by a difference between the two systems which materially affects the intellectual processes involved in every discussion, and which is apparently fundamental.

The proofs and arguments adduced by the municipal lawyer are addressed to the object of setting in motion certain legal machinery which will result in a judicial judgment to be enforced by the entire power of the state over litigants subject to its jurisdiction and control. Before him lies a clear, certain, definite conclusion of the controversy, and

^{*}An address delivered before the American Society of International Law. Republished by permission of the American Branch of the Association for International Conciliation.



"Peace Spiking the Last Gun." From an allegorical painting.



"After War." From the Painting by Jan ten Kate in the International Museum of War and Peace, Lucerne.

for the finality and effectiveness of that conclusion the sheriff and the policeman stand always as guarantors in the last resort.

When the international lawyer, on the other hand, passes from that academic discussion in which he has no one to convince but himself, and proceeds to seek the establishment of rights or the redress of wrongs in a concrete case, he has apparently no objective point to which he can address his proofs or arguments, except the conscience and sense of justice of the opposing party to the controversy. In only rare, exceptional and peculiar cases, do the conclusions of the international lawyer, however clearly demonstrated, have behind them the compulsory effect of possible war. In the vast majority of practical questions arising under the rules of international law there does not appear on the surface to be any reason why either party should abandon its own contention or yield against its own interest to the arguments of the other side. The action of each

party in yielding or refusing to yield to the arguments of the other appears to be entirely dependent upon its own will and pleasure. This apparent absence of sanction for the enforcement of the rules of international law has led great authority to deny that those rules are entitled to be called law at all; and this apparent hopelessness of finality carries to the mind, which limits its consideration to the procedure in each particular case, a certain sense of futility of argument.

Nevertheless, all the foreign offices of the civilized world are continually discussing with each other questions of international law, both public and private, cheerfully and hopefully marshaling facts, furnishing evidence, presenting arguments and building up records, designed to show that the rules of international law require such and such things to be done or such and such things to be left undone. And in countless cases nations are yielding against their own apparent interests in the particular cases under discussion, in obedience to the rules which are shown to be applicable.

Why is it that nations are thus continually yielding to arguments with no apparent compulsion behind them, and before the force of such arguments abandoning purposes, modifying conduct, and giving redress for injuries? A careful consideration of this question seems to lead to the conclusion that the difference between municipal and international law, in respect of the existence of forces compelling obedience, is more apparent than real, and that there are sanctions for the enforcement of international law no less real and substantial than those which secure obedience to municipal law.

It is a mistake to assume that the sanction which secures obedience to the laws of the state consists exclusively or chiefly of the pains and penalties imposed by the law itself for its violation. It is only in exceptional cases that men refrain from crime through fear of fine or imprisonment. In the vast majority of cases men refrain from criminal conduct because they are unwilling to incur in the community in which they live the public condemnation and

obloquy which would follow a repudiation of the standard of conduct prescribed by that community for its members. As a rule, when the law is broken the disgrace which follows conviction and punishment is more terrible than the actual physical effect of imprisonment or deprivation of property. Where it happens that the law and public opinion point different ways, the latter is invariably the stronger. I have seen a lad grown up among New York toughs break down and weep because sent to a reformatory instead of being sentenced to a state's prison for a violation of law. The reformatory meant comparative ease, comfort, and opportunity for speedy return to entire freedom; the state's prison would have meant hard labor and long and severe confinement. Yet in his community of habitual criminals a term: in state's prison was a proof of manhood and a title to distinction, while consignment to a reformatory was the treatment suited to immature boyhood. He preferred the punishment of manhood with what he deemed honor to the opportunity of youth with what he deemed disgrace. Not only is the effectiveness of the punishments pronounced by law against crime derived chiefly from the public opinion which accompanies them, but those punishments themselves are but one form of the expression of public opinion. Laws are capable of enforcement only so far as they are in agreement with the opinions of the community in which they are to be enforced. As opinion changes old laws become obsolete and new standards force their way into the statute books. Laws passed, as they sometimes are, in advance of public opinion ordinarily wait for their enforcement until the progress of opinion has reached recognition of their value. The force of law is in the public opinion which prescribes it.

The impulse of conformity to the standard of the community and the dread of its condemnation are reinforced by the practical considerations which determine success or failure in life. Conformity to the standard of business integrity which obtains in the community is necessary to business success. It is this consideration, far more frequently

than the thought of the sheriff with a writ of execution, that leads men to pay their debts and to keep their contracts. Social esteem and standing, power and high place in the profession, in public office, in all associated enterprises, depend upon conformity to the standards of conduct in the community. Loss of these is the most terrible penalty society can inflict. It is only for the occasional nonconformist that the sheriff and policeman are kept in reserve; and it is only because the nonconformists are occasional and comparatively few in number that the sheriff and policeman can have any effect at all. For the great mass of mankind, laws established by civil society are enforced directly by the power of public opinion, having, as the sanction for its judgments, the denial of nearly everything for which men strive in life.

The rules of international law are enforced by the same kind of sanction, less certain and peremptory but continually increasing in effectiveness of control. "A decent respect to the opinions of mankind" did not begin or end among nations with the American Declaration of Independence; but it is interesting that the first public national act in the New World should be an appeal to that universal international public opinion, the power and effectiveness of which the New World has done so much to promote.

In former times, each isolated nation, satisfied with its own opinion of itself and indifferent to the opinion of others, separated from all others by mutual ignorance and misjudgment, regarded only the physical power of other nations. Gibbon could say of the Byzantine Empire: "Alone in the universe, the self-satisfied pride of the Greeks was not disturbed by the comparison of foreign merit; and it is no wonder if they fainted in the race, since they had neither competitors to urge their speed nor judges to crown their victory." Now, however, there may be seen plainly the effects of a long-continued process which is breaking down the isolation of nations, permeating every country with better knowledge and understanding of every other country, spreading throughout the world a knowledge of each gov-

ernment's conduct to serve as a basis for criticism and judgment, and gradually creating a community of nations, in which standards of conduct are being established, and a world-wide public opinion is holding nations to conformity or condemning them for disregard of the established standards. The improved facilities for travel and transportation, the revival of colonization and the growth of colonies on a gigantic scale, the severance of the laborer from the soil, accomplished by cheap steamship and railway transportation and the emigration agent, the flow and return of millions of emigrants across national lines, the amazing development of telegraphy and of the press, conveying and spreading instant information of every interesting event that happens in regions however remote—all have played their part in this change.

Pari passu with the breaking down of isolation, that makes a common public opinion possible, the building up of standards of conduct is being accomplished by the formulation and establishment of rules that are being gradually taken out of the domain of discussion into that of general acceptance—a process in which the recent conferences at The Hague have played a great and honorable part. There is no civilized country now which is not sensitive to this general opinion, none that is willing to subject itself to the discredit of standing brutally on its power to deny to other countries the benefit of recognized rules of right conduct. The deference shown to this international public opinion is in due proportion to a nation's greatness and advance in civilization. The nearest approach to defiance will be found among the most isolated and least civilized of countries. whose ignorance of the world prevents the effect of the world's opinion; and in every such country internal disorder, oppression, poverty, and wretchedness mark the penalties which warn mankind that the laws established by civilization for the guidance of national conduct cannot be ignored with impunity.

National regard for international opinion is not caused by amour propre alone—not merely by desire for the approval and good opinion of mankind. Underlying the desire for approval and the aversion to general condemnation, with nations as with individuals, there is a deep sense of interest, based partly upon the knowledge that mankind backs its opinions by its conduct and that nonconformity to the standard of nations means condemnation and isolation, and partly upon the knowledge that in the give and take of international affairs it is better for every nation to secure the protection of the law by complying with it than to forfeit the law's benefits by ignoring it.

Beyond all this there is a consciousness that in the most important affairs of nations, in their political status, the success of their undertakings and their processes of development, there is an indefinite and almost mysterious influence exercised by the general opinion of the world regarding the nation's character and conduct. The greatest and strongest governments recognize this influence and act with reference to it. They dread the moral isolation created by general adverse opinion and the unfriendly feeling that accompanies it, and they desire general approval and the kindly feeling that goes with it.

This is quite independent of any calculation upon a physical enforcement of the opinion of others. It is difficult to say just why such opinion is of importance, because it is always difficult to analyze the action of moral forces; but it remains true and is universally recognized that the nation which has with it the moral force of the world's approval is strong, and the nation which rests under the world's condemnation is weak, however great its material power.

These are the considerations which determine the course of national conduct regarding the vast majority of questions to which are to be applied the rules of international law. The real sanction which enforces those rules is the injury which inevitably follows nonconformity to public opinion; while, for the occasional and violent or persistent law-breaker, there always stands behind discussion the ultimate possibility of war, as the sheriff and the policeman await

the occasional and comparatively rare violators of municipal law.

Of course, the force of public opinion can be brought to bear only upon comparatively simple questions and clearly ascertained and understood rights. Upon complicated or doubtful questions, as to which judgment is difficult, each party to the controversy can maintain its position of refusing to yield to the other's argument without incurring public condemnation. Upon this class of questions the growth of arbitration furnishes a new and additional opportunity for opinion to act; because, however complicated the question in dispute may be, the proposition that it should be submitted to an impartial tribunal is exceedingly simple, and the nation which refuses to submit a question properly the subject of arbitration naturally invites condemnation.

Manifestly, this power of international public opinion is exercised not so much by governments as by the people of each country whose opinions are interpreted in the press and determine the country's attitude towards the nation whose conduct is under consideration. International opinion is the consensus of individual opinion in the nations. The most certain way to promote obedience to the law of nations and substitute the power of opinion for the power of armies and navies is, on the one hand, to foster that "decent respect to the opinions of mankind" which found place in the great Declaration of 1776, and on the other hand, to spread among the people of every country a just appreciation of international rights and duties, and a knowledge of the principles and rules of international law to which national conduct ought to conform; so that the general opinion, whose approval or condemnation supplies the sanction for the law, may be sound and just and worthy of respect.



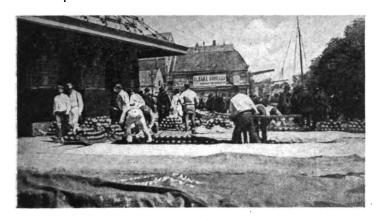
Part VI. Alkmaar, the Cheese Market---The Forbidden Kermis---Hoorn---Enkhuyzen---The Island of Urk---Stavoren---Hindeloopen ---The Boer*

By George Wharton Edwards

F course the great attraction of Alkmaar is its cheese market, at which 5,000,000 kilos of the commodity are sold yearly. Every Friday morning curiously shaped vehicles quite filled with yellow shiny cheeses are driven into town from all parts of the country round about. Contrary to our notion, these cheeses are not red, unless for export. The wagons are of light, varnished wood, high up above the wheels and painted bright blue inside. They are all headed for the market place, and the Weigh House. The Carillon is busily ringing out its sweet tones. The Wedding March from Lohengrin played upon these bells is a delight to the ear, and from the tower at intervals two little, mechanical, wooden horse-men charge each other to the notes of the mechanical-trumpeter. The sight in the marketplace is most curious and unique, perhaps the most curious in all the Netherlands. There are huge heaps or mounds of cheeses which glow and glitter in the sunlight. Long lines of boats come in and discharge their cargos in

^{*}Copyright 1908 by George Wharton Edwards. The series began in the September CHAUTAUQUAN.

turn before the painted and gilded Weigh House and the square is filled with buyers and sellers, shouting and getting in each other's way to such an extent that one wonders how they do any business. To the onlooker they seem to be shaking hands constantly, as if congratulating each other upon the amount of cheese in the marketplace. The peasants are tossing the cheeses down to the porters who are dressed in a kind of white canvas, and wear large, flatbrimmed hats of red or blue or yellow, as the case may be-They carry on small hand-barrows two or three hundredweight of the yellow balls. They glide over the ground in a curious scuffling, shambling manner. There are scales scattered about, corresponding in color to the hats of the porters. The whole scene in fact, is a wild, kaleidoscopic revel of glaring colors. The bargaining presents a most peculiar ceremony. By dint of listening carefully, one hears a price named which is at once rejected by the other who seems to name his price, only to have it in turn, rejected, and after an interminable number of these rejections, the purchase is completed by both hands meeting with a quick sort of a slap and so the bargaining goes on until noon when a truce is declared. All adjourn to the little eating-places for dinner which is a most serious and formidable ceremony with them. Apart from this Alkmaar is not of very great interest. There is here a typical alms-house called in Dutch "De Oude mannen Enn-Oude vrouwen huis," with pretty, white walls and a picturesque tower. There is a picture of the siege of Alkmaar in the Museum, for this was the point of attack by the Duke of Alva after the conquest of Haarlem, when the citizens of Alkmaar defied him. Motley's vivid narrative describes how "The Spaniards advanced, burned the village of Egmont to the ground as soon as the patriots had left it, and on the 21st of August Don Frederick, appearing before the walls, proceeded formally to invest Alkmaar." In a few days this had been so thoroughly accomplished that in Alva's language, "it was impossible for a sparrow to enter or go out of the city." The odds were somewhat unequal. Sixteen thousand troops con-



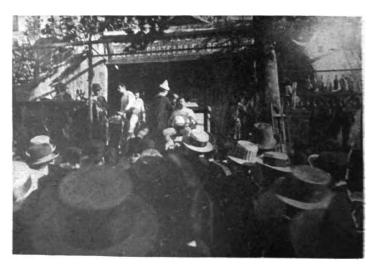
Cheese Porters at the Cheese Market, Alkmaar.



Cheese Buyers in the Cheese Market, Alkmaar.



A Quiet Spot, Old Delft.



The Kermis.



Town Hall, Alkmaar.



Cattlemarket, Alkmaar.



St. Jan's, Hoorn.



The Weigh-house, Cheese Market, Alkmaar.



Canal in Alkmaar.

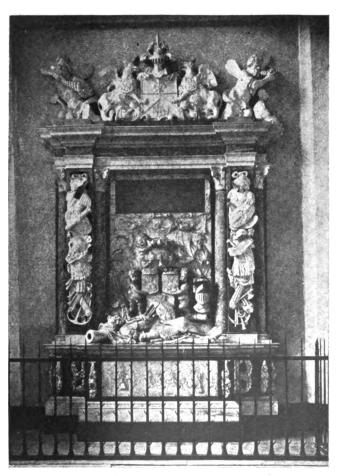


Fishing Boats in the Harbor of Hoorn.

From Stereograph Copyright by Underwood and Underwood, New York.



Mending Nets, Urk.



Admiral Tromp's Monument, Delft.



The Spaarne, Haarlem.



The Cathedral, Dort.



Head Ornaments, Stavoren.



Headdress, Hindeloopen.



Holiday Costume, Friesland.



Peasant Type, Stavoren.



The Amsterdam Gate, Haarlem.

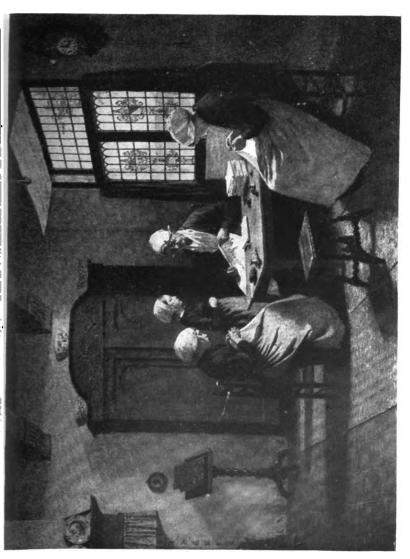


Leeuwarden.



Dutch Children, Island of Maarken.





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On the Ice-Holland in Winter. Scene in Broek in Waterland.



Wealthy Farmer, Wife and Daughter, Hindeloopen.

stituted the besieging force. Within the city were a garrison of 800 soldiers, together with 1,300 burghers, capable of bearing arms. The rest of the population consisted of very few refugees, besides the women and children. Two thousand one hundred able-bodied men, of whom about one-third were soldiers, to resist 16,000 regulars! On that bank and shoal says Motley, "the extreme edge of habitable earth, the spirit of Holland's freedom stood at bay." But after a heroic defence of seven weeks, the brave inhabitants triumphed; the siege was raised.

Here in August one of the famous trotting matches which attracts thousands from the country around is held in the park, and here one will have an unequaled opportunity for the study of North Holland manners and customs. Kermis is now forbidden through most of the towns. generally after harvest time it was celebrated, and the otherwise sleepy little town would rub its eyes, put on its best cap, and give itself over to a heavy sort of gaiety. The marketplace, generally so deserted and grass-grown, was then dotted with gorgeous booths, merry-go-rounds, and caravans, brilliant in tinsel and vermilion, the smoke from the lamps of which, for it is by night that the Kermis thrives, mounts high in the air to the tower. The groans and snarls of bag-pipes, the noisy rumble and discordant notes of large organs, the clash of cymbals, awaken the echoes of the marketplace to which the peasants are flocking from miles about, in high-waisted wagons, hay-cushioned, and drawn by huge, hollow-backed Flemish horses, bell-rigged, and brass-harnessed; in low two-wheeled carts, drawn by savage-looking yellow dogs, of non-descript breed; and in high polished and varnished "Tilburys," whose white, canvas hoods gleam in the soft light of evening. Still others are drawn by hardy-looking shaggy ponies. Some are entirely filled with rosy-cheeked, chattering girls from the farm clad in brilliant costumes and lace caps; some wagons are laden with sweet-smelling clover upon which is perched Mynheer and his comfortable-looking, shrewdfaced Vrouwe, who is generally the superintendent of the

farm, and to whom a silver gulden represents a good day's profit from cheese and butter; others are laden with thickfeatured, phlegmatic, young men from the fields, who wear high-waisted jackets and wide leather belts clasped with huge, embossed, silver, circular buckles, each one smoking furiously. The roads leading into town are thronged also with long lines of the poorer peasants, men, women, and girls who own no conveyance of any sort, the laborers upon the roads and in the potato and beet fields, tanned a dark brown by the sun with hands thick and calloused by hard work. All these are bound for the town and the fleeting joys of the Kermis. From afar, the glare in the marketplace can be seen and the massive Cathedral spire, aglow with lights. The noise of the peasants' wooden shoes upon the uneven stones is like the clattering of a giant millwheel, and they present a solid appearance like an army in motion. The air is filled with shouts and laughter, and now and then a company of girls who are arm in arm will break into song and not unmusically.

'Although it is nine o'clock it is not yet dark, twilight lingers long in the low country, but high in the heavens a few stars show here and there and are reflected in the sluggish water of the canal, over the little bridge of which the peasants are now clattering noisly. Many children too are among the throng, queer-looking, old-faced children in shortwaisted, brass-buttoned coats and skirts that spring voluminously from beneath their arm-pits and quite reach the ground; children to whom the sight of a real doll is a novelty and who, later on, are to sit at the long tables and drink huge mugs of foaming beer and consume piles of greasy waffles, the smell of which is nauseating at times; or who will stand open-mouthed and eager in long, struggling lines before the toy stands, their fingers itching to handle and caress the beautiful objects displayed, and who will eagerly hand up their scant coin to the jaded-looking woman who presides over the wheel of fortune, the prize of which is a sheet of paper containing as it may be, ten, twenty, or fifty little dabs of suspicious-looking, white sugar which they

lick off with delight. Whatever figure the brass arrow points out, that number of dabs is handed over to the winner.

In the square, one side of which is filled with tents and merry-go-rounds, the peasants struggle and push in a solid, evil-smelling mass, watching at one side the tumbling, wooden horses and lions upon which are straddled the peasants, screaming with delight to the blatant blare of heavy orchestrions, and upon the other side, the antics of a clown upon a barrel, his face whitened with chalk and a red spot upon either cheek, who rings a harsh-toned bell and roars out a coarse joke directed at the peasants, to which they respond with force. At intervals a couple of frowsy-looking women in soiled, pink tights, walk affectedly across the platform before the show-tent followed by a hideous dwarf who mouths and leers amid appreciative roars. Ordinarily the peasant is silent but upon these occasions makes up for his erstwhile taciturnity. Before another booth a hoarsevoiced showman roars out the attractions of the fat woman of incredible weight, becoming purple in the face in his simulated enthusiasm and frantically endeavors to coax the hard-earned "dubbeltje" from the phlegmatic, open-mouthed Mynheers. There is weight-lifting by champions and stronglunged men, each surrounded by admiring crowds. At intervals small portions of colored fire are burned, now green, now red, lighting up the quaint gables of the houses and throwing complementary shadows of the poles, flags and people, magnified out of all proportion. In the cafés, dancing is being indulged in which becomes fast and furious as the night grows. The sanded floors are crowded with couples turning and twisting to the raucous tones of large orchestrions turned by jaded, heavy-looking men. Beer flows by the barrel and later on, a particularly evil sort of brandy made from potatoes which produces, sometimes, upon the peasant, a murderous frenzy. The police are everywhere. in and out of uniform, their watchful eyes taking in every movement of the crowd. The air is heavy with the fumes of tobacco and the smoke of oil lamps. Over head, the vast

square fabric of the tower rises majestically, its summit lost in the dark blue of the heavens, and even above the noise of the moving peasants, the hum of voices, the coaxing shouts of the showmen, the beating of drums, the blare of trumpets, and the countless, indescribable noises of a large crowd, there comes to one faintly from above the faint, mellow, jangle of the chimes, followed by the hollow boom of the big bell, striking twelve. The "Kermis" is well on. But there is another side to the Kermis, which is shown by the police records, and this I am compelled to say is the opposite to the picture which I have drawn. This is fraught with drunkenness and crime-even murder, and so the Kermis is now forbidden in the large cities, and only tolerated in the more remote communities, and even in these the church unites with the authorities in a careful watch over the peasantry, and the lines are more tightly drawn than formerly, when the predatory bands of foreigners, who accompanied the itinerant shows from town to town, were permitted to plunder the people at will. So in a few years at most the Kermis will be a custom of the past, known only in history.

Hoorn, is a most attractive little town, and its spires and tower appearing from the heavy masses of the trees, present a most beautiful picture. To see it in shadow against the warm, yellow sky at eventide and a big whitish dab of full moon rising behind a gable and a few velvety sailed fishing boats gliding by noiselessly while the peasants throng the coping at the harbor front, their red and blue waists reflected in the water, will give one great delight. It is said that Hoorn was named from the protecting mole at the harbor mouth and that the city was once very rich and great in the days of Tromp whose ships were from this port. Our own Cape Horn is its namesake, for it was Willem Schonten, its discoverer, who was a sailor from here. Van Diemen's Land was discovered by Abel Tasman and the country is now called for him. Tasmania, and it was Pieter Coen. whose statue may be seen here, who is said to have founded the Dutch East Indies. There is only one business day at Hoorn during the week and Thursday is the day. The

scene is a reproduction in miniature of the cheese market at Alkmaar. The streets are irregularly built and crowded with quaint architecture of three centuries ago. The tourist is an object of curiosity, but he will meet with great civility and often kindnesses. Admiral De Bossu surrendered here and with three hundred prisoners was carried into Holland. He remained in prison three years. His goblet is preserved at Hoorn, his sword at Enkhuizen. At the corner of the "Grooteoost" one will be shown the houses from which the wives and families watched the great battle of Hoorn, and there is a bas-relief representation of the fight. Everything about Hoorn is particularly quaint, clean, and charming, the houses bending forward over the street and trimmed with black paint, and the whole effect against the thick trees indescribably mellow and rich in color. There is a fine museum and pictures of soldiers and burgomasters and a splendid portrait of De Ruyter by Bol, all shown smilingly by a nice girl in a most fascinating costume. From here we go to Enkhuizen which, by the way, need not detain us long, for we take here a little steamer to the Island of Urk.

The visitor to Urk will find it like a voyage to another country. It is a raised plateau above the surface of the shallow waters of the Zuider Zee, and the people are called Free Frisians. It seems to cower by itself behind its dykes but for which, one is assured, it would certainly be swept away. On a rainy day, it is the dreariest place that I have ever seen, and imprisoned in the small sitting-room of the inn, if it may be called such, one could only smoke, hug the fire of peat which burned most fragrantly upon the hearth, listen to the bubbling of the steaming kettle, and try to teach the starling in a wicker cage in the window a new whistling note or two, while the stolid Mynheers, drawn up on a bench opposite, smoking furiously, drank in every detail of my personal appearance. Outside the rain splashed dismally and an occasional peasant slopped by, his klompen sounding noisily. This was my first evening at Urk. The next day was much more amusing in the bright sunlight although I

spent a restless night in the bed built in the wall, to get into which I had to mount three steps and thence fall into a bottomless feathery abyss, which closed in upon me, and which I had to rearrange before I could rest upon it. Added to this, was a pattering noise made, I afterwards discovered, by fleas, who were performing acrobatics on a newspaper which I had left on the table. The proprietor in the morning gave me some powder to sprinkle about the bed and the floor which he said quieted "the little birds" as he called them and rendered them stupefied for the night! This operation has to be gone through with regularly in parts of the Netherlands. But the morning dawned bright and clear over Urk, and after a frugal breakfast, of eggs, several kinds of cheese and some hot tea, I sallied forth.

The streets of Urk are quite deserted save for a few women and children, the men being away with the fishing fleet. Those to be seen are mainly old ones who have practically retired from work and these, as I passed through the streets, invariably sallied forth, pipe in mouth, and their hands in their wide, breeched plackets, and, falling into line, stopping when I stopped, moving when I moved, followed me wherever I went, standing motionless when I paused to make a sketch, their heads moving in unison, and their eves looking in vain search for what I sought in the prospect. The humor of the situation dawning upon me, I led them up one street and down another, walking now fast and now slow, and suddenly doubling upon my track to their confusion, but it did not feaze them in the least. Invariably they returned to the attack, escorting me finally in triumph back to the inn where they reseated themselves upon the long bench. This sort of amusement soon palled upon me, so I ordered beer for all of them and paid for it promptly. It was here that I made great fame for myself as a medical practitioner. I had a little case of homeopathic remedies for simple ailments and I ventured to prescribe for a slight, childish ailment from which the little daughter of a neighbor was suffering, and which produced the desired result, the child recovering during the night and being at

play in the morning when I came down to breakfast, to the manifest relief and delight of the mother, whose gratitude and enthusiasm could not be restrained, she insisting that I had saved her child's life. Thus my fame spread over Urk and when I returned from my work to dinner, found an array of patients awaiting me, to my discomfiture. So I fled from Urk by the afternoon boat with the grateful mothers waving me goodbye from the dyke, and with numerous presents of cake and sausage which they pressed upon me. The sausage was long and thin, bulbous in places and inclined to curl suggestively so that I surreptitiously threw it all overboard as Urk was fading in the distance.

The captain of the little boat is a genius in extracting guldens from the chance traveler. From a distance of considerably over 3,000 miles I salute him! On the upper deck of this boat near the wheel and in advance of the smoke stack is a small bench. The space for first-class passengers is at the stern of the boat, the peasants being supposed to go forward in the bow. I saw the deck-hand carry down some square blocks of coal-dust mixed with tar which he deposited at the door of the engine room. I had seated myself comfortably in the stern for the last glimpse of Urk, when there came vast volumes of black smoke from the stack and I was enveloped in a cloud of black smudges. The deck-hand invited me to mount the steps to the captain's bridge and I did so, taking a seat on the aforesaid bench before the smokestack, and in a few minutes the captain turned and said, "Tickets, please," and extorted from me an extra gulden for the "privilege" of sitting before the smokestack. It is not the amount but rather the skill of the extortion which interests one.

It is said that Stavoren was formerly so wealthy as a city and its inhabitants so opulent that the handles on their doors and the hinges of their windows were of beaten gold and very large in size. It was formerly the residence of the Frisian monarchs and was named from the god, Stavo. It is now silent and practically deserted and I presume I must relate the story of Guycciardini who informs us quaintly

that there was a certain rich widow who dwelt at Stavoren and who finally became so wealthy that she really knew not the sum total of her vast possessions. "This," says the writer, "produced in her, manners at once arrogant and petulant, and she treated all who came near her with great insolence." Loading a vessel for Dantzic, with all the commodities which the shopkeepers of Holland could find, she put it under the charge of her most skilful captain and commanded him to bring back to her the most exquisite, the rarest, the most useful and the most valuable article to be procured in the world. Not daring to question her further, the captain set sail and sold his cargo in foreign lands, searching in vain for the article which the widow desired but which she would not nominate. At length, after deep cogitation and many sleepless hours, the captain concluded that there was nothing in the world more valuable than wheat. so he loaded his ship with this and returned to Stavoren. When he appeared before the widow and delivered to her a sample of his cargo, she ordered the captain to throw the grain overboard into the harbor, and in her rage and disappointment, she ordered him from her presence and stripped him of his authority. The captain did as he was bid and the grain, taking root, a sand bank was formed at the entrance of the harbor which quite choked it up, preventing ships of any tonnage from entering, and the grass-grown sand bank which appears in front of the harbor is now known as the "Vrouwenzand."

My Dutch friend tells me that Hindeloopen means "stag hunt" and tells too that this is the headquarters for all the bric-a-brac dealers in the world, that it is here that all the spurious cradles, chairs, cupboards, gaily-painted "antique" sleds, and nearly all the modern Dutch silver are made in the little back streets. This may be so, I do not profess to know. I can only say I was filled with delight during my stay here, and that I left it with deep regret, and I have vivid recollections of beautiful interiors, lined with blue and white tiles, and filled with exquisite painted wood work and cabinets of wonderful carving, groaning with curios and

massive silver beaten vessels. I never have seen so many Delft plates, or so much beautiful, shining brass and copper anywhere else. There is a queer show room with wax figures, showing typical peasants of Hindeloopen and here one may see the Friesland women who are said to be the handsomest in the country. They wear a skull cap of solid gold, beaten gold. It fits over the whole head closely, and forms an heirloom, descending from mother to daughter for generations. It is covered with lace through which it gleams most attractively. This head dress had its origin, so it is said, when the favorite daughter of one of the early rulers of the free Frisians, suffering from an incurable skin disease, had the misfortune to lose her hair. Her father offered a large reward to anyone who could suggest an ornamental head covering which would enable her to appear to advantage before the court, and the cap which she wore and which was designed by a gold worker, found so much favor in all eyes, that it was adopted by the court ladies and then became part of the provincial costume. It is called in the language "Kapsel."

The Boer. I am told that the Dutch Boer or farmer has not changed in character within the last hundred years and that he is not discontented. We have seen him at the "Kermis" and in the sea-port towns, and perhaps we have in our minds a very good picture of him. We have seen him also in the cheese market, and we know that his cheese making and his farm is the object of his life, but it seems to me that the old Boer with his shaven, mahogany colored face and his bright, keen gray eyes, is certainly much more attractive than the younger ones. I have in mind one fine old fellow I fell in with, and with whom I became quite friendly, who was arrayed in a most picturesque costume. Calling one morning in a high-backed "tilbury" on his way from market, over a glass of foaming beer he invited me to inspect his "Spul" (that is to say, his farm plant). As we drove up to the house which was in the "Polders" in the midst of a flat country and backed by a beautiful clump of trees, he showed me his idols which were two score of clean

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black and white cows, with large, full udders, a stable full of fine young horses, a "stive" full of the cleanest white pigs I have ever seen, a chicken and duck yard in immaculate order, a gorgeous pagoda, or summer house, painted green with a minaret surmounted by a gilded weather vane; a beautiful Sunday carriage for church going, in the form of a chaise, with golden wheels picked out with red and blue flowers, the property of his wife and daughters, and a dog house of large proportions mounted on a pivot, in the midst of a paved circle of brick, which he explained to me he had arranged so that the dog that was chained to the house could, when it so pleased him, drag it around on its pivot to face the sun in whatever direction it might be shining. The gardens were in "apple-pie" order. His pear trees were groaning with fruit, his straw ricks were numerous, and his sheep were scattered over the landscape as far as one could see. He was a typical specimen of the Boer, a man of some education, and of great native shrewdness. a member of the town council, or what we would call an alderman, and was worth, probably, in the neighborhood of half a million gulden. But he was a Boer as his father had been before him, and of this he was very proud, and a conservative, rooted adherence to the ways of his forefathers is the dominant keynote of his character.

I was most hospitably entertained and the prevailing bad times have certainly not yet penetrated this quaint land. I noted in the principal sitting-room that the walls seemed composed of closed paneled doors, and remarked upon this, when the Boer opened one of these panels, and showed me that the recess behind it contained a bed and that all these doors I saw were simply the entrances to the beds. They therefore all sleep in the one room, the Boer, his wife, son, and the three daughters. When they get into bed, they simply pull the doors to, and there without any ventilation whatever, save that which enters through the small, pierced hearts in the upper panel, they sleep "the sleep of sweet content." The Boer can and does rise to positions of high estate, but once and for all he remains, rich or poor, a peasant.

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He is of sterling character, keenly intelligent, extremely bigoted, and withal, the vital strength of the Netherlands.

Passing through the country one sees on every hand droves of black and white cows, ample in size, generally clothed in a jacket, and almost invariably wearing ear-rings which are pieces of tin, stamped each with its registry number. I forgot to obtain one of these as a souvenir. These cows and the pigs are a familiar sight. Somewhere I have read of a character in the Netherlands who had amassed such a fortune from pork that whenever he met one of the beasts, he raised his hat politely. The town of Edam even displays upon its municipal arms the figure of a fine fat cow, and I saw upon one of the house fronts over the doorway of a rich retired Boer, who is said to have been a butcher, a pig carved in wood with a knife sticking through its throat. Thus was this man proud of his vocation. It is over the rich country called "Betuwe" (Goodland) on account of its fertility, that the Boer is seen in his glory. Surely there was never a more restful country. There are broad, grassgrown roads, considerably above the level of the belt of fields, and the rich cherry orchards and farm-steadings, and it is hard to understand that the safety of the whole countryside depends upon the watchful care of the dyke, standing so firmly underfoot. But with study and observation, we see that every point in the landscape is significant and that each building of the farms has its own scheme of protection and its own level, and also why the farms and villages in the "Binnenwaarden" hug so closely the protecting dyke. In the summer there is peace for the farmer, but in the late winter when the ice breaks up, and the river becomes a torrent beneath the ice, and the wind changes and the ice melts and the enormous blocks some sliding down, mounting the dyke, then it is that the watchmen cry out "D'r uut! D'r uut! De Waaol die kruut!" (Come out, come out, the wall is drifting) and so the country-side is warned of the danger to their property, if not to their lives, and gather in defence.



VI. The Landscape and Marine Painters*

By George Breed Zug

Assistant Professor of the History of Art in the University of Chicago.

JUST as we have noticed that while the Dutch genre painters were not the first artists to introduce scenes from everyday life into their paintings they were the very first to find in such domestic scenes a subject worthy in itself of artistic expression, so the landscape painters of Holland were not the first to paint landscapes, but they were the first group of artists devoted to the rendering of nature purely for its own sake. And though to say that Ruisdael and Hobbema painted beautiful landscapes may invite the remark that Leonardo and Raphael, Bellini and Titian did the same, yet certain characteristics of Dutch landscape painting of the seventeenth century make it seem, when compared with that of earlier schools, like a new art. To realize this one need only to notice some features common to the landscape art of Italy, France, and Flanders.

In the first place, landscape in all these schools serves only as an accessory, as a setting for human figures which always dominate the picture. For it is the human, or, more often, the religious element which is the leading motive to which landscape is always subordinate. In literature we find the same thing. In the older poets, Shakespeare, Dante, and Milton, the main theme is human or religious with only

^{*}The series "Dutch Art and Artists" began in the September Chautauquan and will be concluded in the May number.

here and there a few magic lines of beautiful nature poetry that serve as a decorative background. Again the same is true of the great Flemish painter Rubens, one of the supreme masters of landscape art, as it is also of the Frenchman Nicholas Poussin (1603-1663) and Claude Lorraine (1600-1682). True it is that in the works of these later men the figures are often smaller in proportion to the size of the whole canvas than in the old Italian pictures, thus giving to the landscape greater space, nevertheless, the dominant theme remains human or divine. It was, then, the Dutchmen of the seventeenth century who formed the first school of painters who took the canals and the dunes, the fields and the villages of their native land as themes worthy of a noble art. Another limitation of the early painters was elaboration of detail in their conscientious effort to reproduce nature in all truthfulness. Everyone remembers how such fifteenth century painters as Benozzo Gozzoli and Botticelli, because they knew that a tree was made up of a great number of leaves, felt that they must try to paint every one. Thus they painted what they knew, not what they actually saw, since what one sees when one looks at a tree as a whole, even if only at a short distance, is an irregular mass of various greens, shot through with light and shade. To reproduce the minute details of nature was the method of the earlier painters who, however, defeated their own end by confusing the eye and thus marring the general effect. Now the Dutch realized this and substituted for the laborious method of the primitives a broader treatment of nature; they painted trees as masses of foliage, and flowers as dots of brilliant color, with the result that they achieved a greater semblance of reality.

Still another characteristic of the landscape painting of the earlier men was a certain abstraction, or lack of concreteness, of definiteness. In the works of such primitive masters as Giotto and his followers of the fourteenth century Florence a tree is little more than a symbol; a stick with a dozen leaves at the top does duty for a whole forest. Even such later and more skilful masters as Claude Lorraine

in France and Gainsborough in eighteenth century England, represent what might be called the generic tree, something with a trunk and branches, which spreads its foliage aloft, but which cannot be recognized as of any particular species. How different is this from Corot's accurate portraits of willows, and Rousseau's realistic rendering of oaks! And as the early painters thus lacked concreteness in their rendering of trees, so they show a want of definiteness in their representations of flowers and even of rocks and hills. Here again the Dutch made great advance in the care with which they produced careful portraits of the oaks, and poplars, and willows of their fields and their forests, and even the lilies and grasses of swamps and marshes.

Finally, there is a certain monotony or lack of variety in the work of any given painter of the early schools. Fra Angelico always shows the same flower-strewn meadows; Botticelli and Lippi always similar views of the environs of Florence; Leonardo the same rocky background for his mysterious smiling faces; Perugino and Raphael invariably give the same Umbrian valleys with their fern-like trees against the sky. In other regards also there is both want of concreteness and lack of variety in the works of these early masters. In their landscapes there are no distinctions in regard to the time of the day, the season and the kind of weather. In all there is an even distribution of light over the whole canvas,—a kind of light which, it has been said, beats only in the studio. Moreover, these men were not successful in rendering the texture or surface appearance of things; the solidity of earth and rocks, the luminosity of atmosphere, the lightness of clouds, and the liquidity of water. Now just as the Dutchmen are vastly more concrete than their predecessors in nearly all regards, so they are infinitely more various, representing a great variety of subjects under still greater variations of atmosphere, of light and of weather. The painters of Holland, therefore, make long strides forward in the new importance that they give to landscape as a fitting theme for a nation's art: in their greater breadth of vision; in their greater truth to natural appearance; in their greater concreteness and definiteness; and in their presentation of nature in various moods.*

Little as we know about the lives of the figure painters, we have still less definite knowledge of the landscapists. In this regard Jakob Ruisdael, the greatest of the Dutch landscape artists, fares no better than the rest. No painted portrait, no description, no appreciation of his character as a man has come down to us. Short and simple is the story of his life so far as it is certainly known. He was the son of Isaak Ruisdael, a frame maker, and the nephew of Salomon Ruisdael, the landscape painter. He was born in Haarlem about 1628 and lived there until 1650 when he removed to Amsterdam. He belonged to the Mennonite Community, and in 1681 he was so reduced in circumstances that the "friends" of the faith petitioned the burgomeister of Haarlem for a place for him in the almshouse, and agreed to pay a sufficient sum for his care so that he should be no cost, but a source of profit to the institution. In a word, Ruisdael's life was one long struggle with poverty and he died in an almshouse when only a little over fifty years of age. To judge from his works he must have been a man of imagination and of intellect, and the possessor of a strong personality. From the internal evidence of his pictures we believe that he learned the elements of his art from his father and his uncle Salomon. It seems likely that he was influenced in later years by Allaert van Everdingen, who had visited the North, and "had brought a breath of Norway with its pines and tumbling waters, into the flats of Hol-

*The chief predecessors of the school of landscape painters of which Jakob Ruisdael and Hobbema were the leaders were Esaias van de Velde (born about 1590), Jan van Goyen (1596-1666), Jan Wynants (born about 1615), Salomon Ruisdael (born about 1600, the uncle of Jakob), Allaert van Everdingin (1612-1675), and Aert van der Neer (1604-1677). Of these the most distinguished was Jan van Goyen who is considered the first to have introduced that mode of treating nature which has been adopted by the great masters of the school. He is important not only for the beauty and truth of his paintings, but also for the influence he exerted over many other painters.

erted over many other painters.

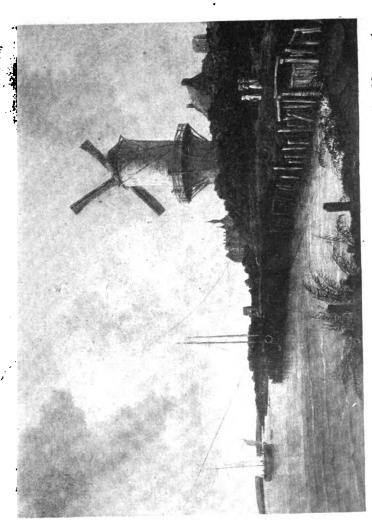
Reproductions of the work of many of these pioneers may be had in the University Prints. (See note on illustrations at the end of this article)

of this article.)

land." However, the four or five hundred pictures by him that have come down to us tell better than words of his devotion to his art and to nature, to his industry, sincerity and high mindedness. It seems as if some of Ruisdael's earliest works were such distant views of his native town as "Haarlem from the Dunes of Overveen." He painted this subject more than twenty times, with ever varying effects of point of view, of lighting, and of shadow. This picture is a bird's-eye view taken from the dunes in the vicinity of Overveen, about a mile and a half from Haarlem. Fields and cottages occupy the foreground, while beyond a wide stretch of country, brightened here and there by gleams of sunlight, the town of Haarlem is visible with its red roofs, its windmills, and its church towers, all dominated by the great dark mass of the Groote Kerk, the church of St. Bavon. Over all, occupying two-thirds of the canvas, extends the vast gray sky, with its dull clouds showing occasional patches of pale blue. The reader should notice the cloud shadows in the foreground, which by contrast of their dark tone heighten the effect of the brighter sky. Notice too that in this picture the low horizon helps to give an impression of spaciousness and solemnity.

Another masterpiece representative of a whole group of similar pictures is the "View of the Rhine near Wyk-by-Duurstede." Eugène Fromentin, the greatest of all critics of Dutch painting, has more nearly than any other writer expressed in words the subtle charm of the painting.

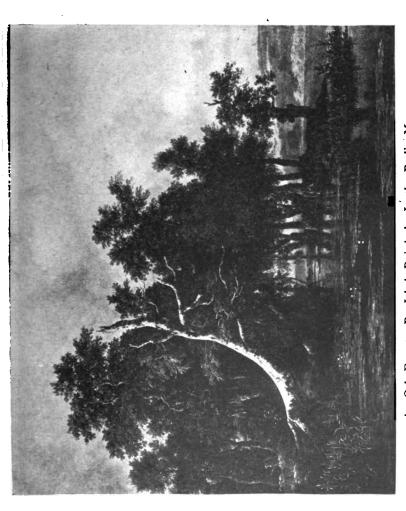
"This picture," he writes, "would be better named The Windmill and under this t'tle no one would be able to treat without disadvantage a subject which in the hands of Ruisdael has found its incomparable typical expression. On the right, terraced ground with trees and houses, and on the summit the black mill with widespread arms, rising high in the canvas; a palisade against which the water of the river softly undulates,—a sluggish water, soft and admirable; a little corner of a vague horizon, very slight and very firm, very pale and very distinct, on which rises the white sail of a boat,—a flat sail with no wind in its canvas, of a soft and perfectly exquisite value. Above it a wide sky loaded with clouds, with openings of pale blue, grey clouds scaling to the top of the canvas,—no light, so to speak, anywhere in this powerful tone, composed of dark browns and dark slate colors, but a single gleam in the middle of the picture, which comes from the far distance, like a smile, to



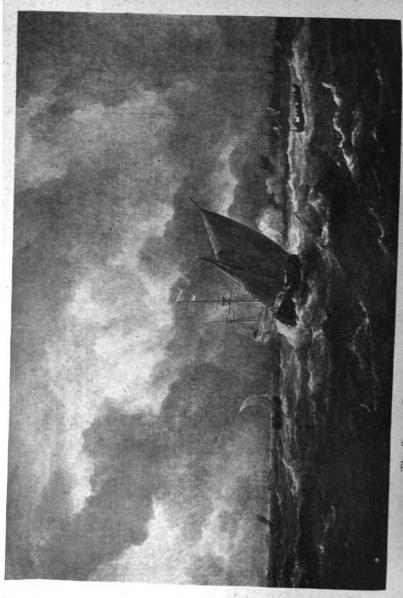
View on the Rhine near Wyk-by-Duurstede. By Jakob Ruisdael. In the Rijks Museum Amsterdam.



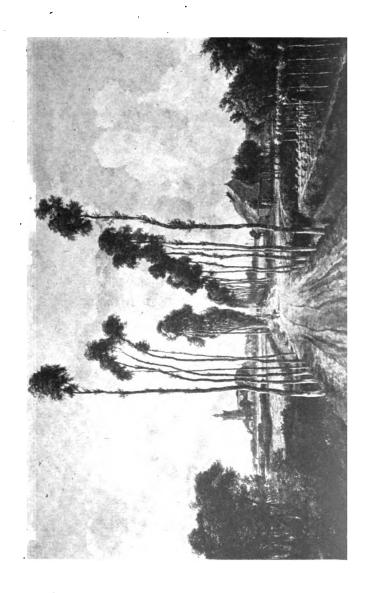
Wooded Landscape with Waterfall. By Jakob Ruisdael. In the Rijks Muscum, Amsterdam.



An Oak Forest. By Jakob Ruisdael. In the Berlin Museum. Courtesy of the Berlin Photographic Company, New York.

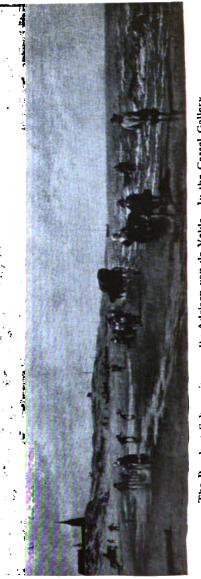


The Stormy Sea. By Jakob Ruisdael. In the Berlin Museum.

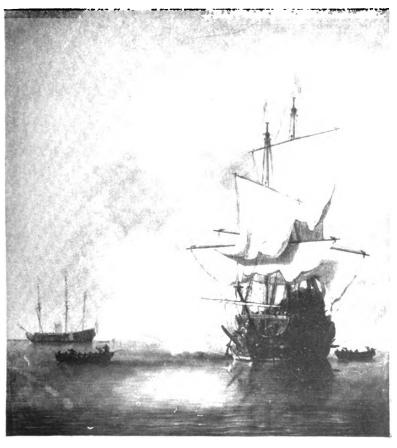


The Watermill. By Hobbema. In the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam.

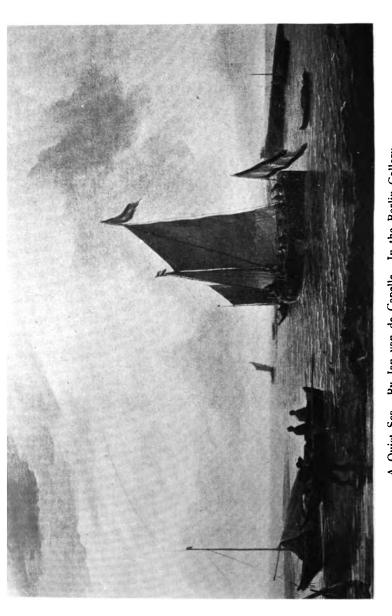
The Village Street. By Hobbema. Courtesy of the Berlin Photographic Company, New York.



The Beach at Scheveningen. By Adriaen van de Velde. In the Cassel Gallery.



The Cannon Shot. By Willem van de Velde, the Younger. In the Rijks Museum, Amsterdam.



A Quiet Sea. By Jan van de Capelle. In the Berlin Gallery. Courtesy of the Berlin Photographic Company, New York.

illumine the disk of a cloud. It is a great square picture, grave, of extreme sonorousness in the lowest register. All Ruisdael is here,—h's noble way of working, little charm, except by chance, a great attractiveness, an inwardness which is revealed little by little, accomplished science, very simple means. Imagine him in conformity with his painting, try to represent him to yourself beside his picture, and if I am not mistaken you will have the double and very harmonious image of an austere dreamer, of warm heart, and laconic and tac'turn spirit."*

"An Oak Forest" presents another of Ruisdael's favorite themes. A similar picture in the St. Petersburg collection is called "The Swamp," but this Berlin picture certainly does not represent a true swamp with stagnant water, but a woodland pool surrounded by trees. The great trunk of a dead beech shows its blanched bark white against the sombre oaks. To the right a distant hillside loses its outlines in vague mist. Very vigorous is the drawing of the rugged trees, very delicate and very true the representation of the quiet water, bordered with reeds and bright with the yellows, whites, and greens of the water lilies. How much truer and more real is this concrete delineation of nature than the beautiful abstractions of the Italians or the decorative dreams of Claude Lorraine. But it is a more rugged aspect of nature which the master most often repeats as in "The Wooded Landscape with Waterfall" in the Rijks Museum at Amsterdam. Similar representations of a mountain torrent dashing over a rocky bed can be found in more than a score of galleries in Europe and America. Some of these pictures present a more mountainous country than does our reproduction, but this picture contains the chief elements of the theme. In the middle distance, often on more rocky heights than here, a group of oaks or pines is outlined against the grey clouds; below the still dark waters of the quiet stream contrast with the foaming falls that dash between the bowlders of the foreground. In this picture the falls stretch almost across the picture, and in it there are miracles of blue-black water and of seething foam. Again there is the blanched trunk of a fallen tree; something this

*"The Old Masters of Belgium and Holland" by E. Fromentin. Translated by Mary E. Robbins. Pages 192-193.

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painter uses frequently as the symbol of man's mortality. It is particularly in this kind of composition and in the use of this particular subject that Everdingen's influence is supposedly traced. But Ruisdael's treatment of the theme is so far superior to Everdingen's as to make it seem hardly probable that Ruisdael's knowledge of mountain scenery was all gained at second hand, for his rocks appear more solid, his water more liquid, and his verdure more natural.

As a marine painter Ruisdael is well represented in "The Stormy Sea" in the Berlin Gallery. In the foreground a vessel with red sails is bending before the breeze, while behind it a Dutch man-of-war has just fired a salute; far off on the horizon the towers and steeples of Amsterdam are dimly visible. Between the gathering storm clouds and the shadows of the foreground, a gleam of sunshine is struggling in faint gleams on the water of the middle distance, brightening the foam of the waves and making the dark clouds seem still darker. In picturing agitated waters and stormy skies Ruisdael excels even those painters who devoted themselves to marines, for they are fully successful only when rendering calm skies and quiet waters.

It should be noticed that each of the five Ruisdael pictures which have been chosen for comment is representative of a whole series of paintings. In addition to these he had other favorite themes, as the beach of Scheveningen, the quiet valley of the Rhine, the Dam and Fishmarket of Amsterdam, the canals, gates, and bridges of the same city. The tendency in Ruisdael to treat all his subjects in a way that connotes the ideas of solemnity and majesty has led to some adverse criticism, to charging the master with narrowness, and with monotony. But it is well to insist that this apparent monotony is part of the master's greatness, it is nothing less than the domination of his personality, the subjective element in his art, which makes his land-scapes among the most modern and the most appealing works of the school.

If little is known of Jakob Ruisdael, still less definite information exists about the life and personality of his-

great rival Meyndert Hobbema. Hobbema was born in 1638, probably at Amsterdam, although four other towns claim the honor of his birth. In 1668 he was married, and in 1700 he died in poverty at Amsterdam. In the year of his marriage he was appointed gauger of foreign liquids. which on their importation had to be remeasured according to Dutch standards. It is difficult to say whether it was, perhaps, due to a less impelling creative impulse than Ruisdael's, or to his occupation as gauger, that he was not nearly so productive as Ruisdael. Whatever the reason we have less than one-third as many paintings by Hobbema. was he the only painter of his time who found it necessary to eke out the bare subsistence afforded by his art in other and more lucrative employment. Salomon Ruisdael was a frame maker, Jan Steen was a brewer and an inn keeper. van Goven bought and sold house pictures, and tulips. Indeed, it is believed that he was more successful as a dealer in tulips than as a painter of pictures. Their countrymen, it seems, did not appreciate the beauties of nature as did the landscapists, for, while Dou, Mieris and others who depicted the infinitely small were able to sell their works at high prices and live in luxury, the best of the landscape men died in poverty. During their lifetime the masterpieces of Ruisdael and Hobbema sold for five and ten dollars apiece. And even fifty years ago a Hobbema went begging at thirty and forty dollars. But clearer ideas about the principles of landscape art together with the increased appreciation of English collectors in recent years have brought the value of Hobbema's best pictures up to over a thousand times their original price. Hobbema's range of subjects is more limited than Ruisdael's. He seems not to have possessed the romantic temperament of his rival which led the latter to seek subjects unusual to Holland, such as waterfalls, ruined castles, and mountain scenery. He remained at home in spirit as in reality, and was content to paint again and again a water mill at the edge of a village, or a group of quiet cottages. Much more than Ruisdael he favors a formal arrangement and a careful balance of parts. This is seen in

what is, perhaps, his most famous picture, "The Avenue, Middelharnis." Directly from the eye of the spectator a road bordered by tall poplars green and bushy only at the top. runs down the center of the picture to a village in the distance. A market garden in the lower right hand corner is balanced by a field to the left, and the trees and cottage on one side in the middle distance correspond to the trees and the church tower on the other side. The lines of the trees, of the roadway, and of the horizon all lead to the distant point, and together make a pattern which is one with the carefully arranged cloud masses in the sky. Thus an unambitious view is glorified by the painter's art and dignified by his formal arrangement. John C. Van Dyke says of this painting, that it would be almost a "perfect picture were it not for its slaty greys and mildewed greens." But from what has been proved of the changes in the pigments of these old masters it is clear we must be slow to condemn their color sense. No critic can say just what changes in color have taken place, and just how much gain or how much loss is due to the mellowing of time. Besides this balanced composition Hobbema often used the diagonal form of composition as seen in the "Watermill." Here, as in dozens of similar pictures, he divides the canvas into two triangles. the upper one being given to the light sky, and the lower to the cottage, the trees and the earth. It is easy to point out wherein the "Mill" differs from nature, the water seems to fall in too straight a sheet; the direction of the twigs and leaves seems to repeat itself, and the sunlight on grass and trees and figures seems at once too spotty and not quite truein color. But a painter's aim is not to furnish material for the geologist and the botanist, but to combine the details which he finds in nature into something based upon, yet different from, nature, into something that in color, form, and light and shade is a unified and beautiful whole.

Another and less formal phase of our painter's work is represented by "The Village Street." The little painting, which is only a few inches in height, seems filled with afternoon sunlight, the effect of which is emphasized by the

shadows on the road and the darks of the trees. One is here so charmed by the spirit of quietude and peace, that one does not object to the slight olive tint of the greens. The marvel is, not that there may have been changes in colors, but rather that the changes have been so slight that after nearly two centuries and a half we still get the impression of sunlight flooding the quiet street, the cottages, and the trees with its softened yellow light. Hobbema and his contemporaries have taught later artists many a lesson in the art of landscape painting. They have shown how the effect of reality is gained, not by drawing infinite details, but by painting in masses. They have handed on to others the device of cloud shadows in the foreground to contrast with the brightness of the sky. Their pictures have been object lessons of careful arrangement, of skilful drawing, and of sincerity of purpose. And by the way in which Hobbema makes his sunlight flicker through the branches of the trees. and play upon the rocks and grass and tree trunks, he led Constable and Diaz and Rousseau to a similar treatment, and was thus responsible for the sparkle and play of light in the works of generations of later painters.

Adriaen van de Velde should be mentioned here as one who painted the figures into the landscapes of his more famous contemporaries, such as Ruisdael, Hobbema, and others. It was a very common thing for the seventeenth century Dutch landscapist to call to his aid an artist especially skilled in figure painting, and this may explain the occasional lack of harmony between figures and setting in certain pictures. But whether the figures be in or out of harmony, they are of such small proportions and of such mediocre execution that they count for little in the compositions which were painted wholly for the sake of the landscape. Adriaen van de Velde was, however, much more than an assistant to other artists; in his own right he was distinguished as an animal and landscape painter of no mean attainments; moreover, he was one of the best etchers of the Dutch school, as his twenty-six plates testify. Born in Amsterdam in 1635, he produced to the time of his death in

1672, at the age of thirty-seven, nearly two hundred paintings in addition to his etchings. In landscape he was a pupil of his father Willem van de Velde, the Elder, and of Jan Wynants. He studied figure painting with Wouverman. and animal painting with Paul Potter. Indeed he is frequently considered a follower of the latter, and as such might be discussed among the animal painters were it not for his figure painting and his series of pictures of the coast near Scheveningen. One of the best of these is the painting in Cassel here reproduced. The first impression of "The Beach of Scheveningen" is of the freshness and brightness of a sunny day by the sea. The sky seems to be luminous as in nature and to shed its light on the breaking waves, the shore, and to play upon the people. These figures cast natural shadows on the beach and reflections in the pools of water. One's eye wanders from the sky down to the ripples of the sea, and to the happy people on the beach, and returns gladly to the sky, for not only is it brighter than the skies of most Dutch paintings, but the clouds seem to be such evanescent, floating things as we know, the reflectors of brilliant daylight; they possess length, breadth, and thickness as well as lightness. They are as different as can be from the flat, pastboard clouds of many paintings old and new. In a word, van de Velde here stands one of the great tests of a good landscapist; he can paint that most difficult of subjects, the sky with its clouds and, moreover, he here gives some suggestion of the movement of the people, the waves, and the clouds. In fact this is an unusually bright and animated picture in a school whose landscapes are often dark and almost gloomy. Many people have the notion partly derived from the sombre tones in the landscapes of these Dutch painters that the skies in Holland are usually overcast and that the moisture laden atmosphere reduces the colors of nature almost to a monotone in grev. This is not true. There are misty and foggy days in Holland, but in summer the sun often shines brightly and the atmosphere is as luminous as in France, Germany, or England. The prevalence of sombreness in the pictures may be

partly explained by the artist's device of lowering the key of light in view of the limitations of his materials. painters felt unequal to the reproduction with pigments of a radiantly sunny sky, and chose, therefore, grey days and cloudy skies as more possible of imitation. After having reduced the key of the sky they were compelled by the canons of artistic consistency to render the foreground still darker. Hence their dark foregrounds with cloud shadows are the result of a purely artistic convention that helped to keep the proper relation of lights and darks in a picture. Another reason for the darkness of many of the pictures lies in a custom prevalent among Dutch painters of the last half of the seventeenth century, the custom of first painting in a dark preparatory color and then superimposing the brighter colors. Time has, on thousands of canvases, brought up the undercolor and so darkened the entire canvas. Another consideration is the chemical changes in the pigments. Some greens change, under action of the oil, to browns. So we may conclude that the Dutchmen were not color blind. They must have seen that grass and trees are green, that tiled roofs are red, and they must have appreciated the brilliancy of sunlight, but the three causes indicated above have led to the prevailing dark tones. It might also be mentioned that many of these landscapes look dark and gloomy when seen across the gallery but show upon close inspection a gentle play of light and subtle variety of color.

The names of the chief marine painters are Willem van de Velde, Jan van de Capelle, Simon de Vlieger, Hendrik Dubbels, and Ludolf Backhuyzen. The last has suffered the severest criticism from the pen of Ruskin, and he may deserve it, for his waves seem made of loaf sugar, and to be wholly without fluidity and movement. Moreover, he is an uneven painter, usually working below the level of his talent. De Vlieger is a better and more convincing painter and one of the best of the group. But, as Sir Walter Armstrong has said of them all, they seem "Never to have lighted on a formula—to put it so low—for the wetness, or the mass, or the

indifference or the chill, or the obedience to the moon and wind, of the sea." In fact the members of the group seem "to charm in proportion to the success with which they suppress the sea, as sea," and draw our attention to the fishermen bending over their nets, the picturesque ships, the brownish yellow sails, the smoke curling from a man-of-war. or to the beauty of the sky. We have chosen for reproduction two pictures by Willem van de Velde, the Younger, and by Jan van de Capelle which, with their quiet harmonies. represent this group at their best. The gentle ripples on the shore and the quiet waters are well suggested by van de Capelle's "Calm Sea." Willem van de Velde, the Younger (1633-1707), a brother of Adriaen, was, perhaps, the best known of all the marine painters. He executed many large pictures representing actions between the English and the Dutch fleets. These huge canvases are not, however, so successful as his smaller and simpler paintings, such as "The Cannon Shot," in which the drooping sails, the clouds of smoke, and the calm waters suggest the hush that follows the salute, the quiet after storm.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.

For general works on Dutch painting see bibliography in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, September, 1908, page 83. Of all the books there mentioned the most helpful for the understanding of the landscape painters for this month and for the animal painters next month are those by Armstrong, by Frometin, and by John C. Van Dyke ("Old Dutch and Flemish Masters").

Other references are as follows:

Masters in Art on Ruisdael, 20 cents (contains ten illustra-

tions, text and bibliography).

Cundall F.: The Landscape and Pastoral Painters of Holland (Ruisdael, Hobbema, Cuyp, Potter), London, 1891. (This book will also be useful in connection with the animal painters next month.)

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Preyer, D. C.: The Art of the Netherland Galleries (in "The Art Calleries of Europea Series"). New York 2008. (The Art Calleries of Europea Series").

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Michel, E.: Jacob von Ruysdael et les paysagistes de l'ecole de Haarlem, Paris, 1890.

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ILLUSTRATIONS.

As it is so important to use illustrations in connection with the study of art, the reader is reminded that not only Ruisdael and Hobbema, but many other landscape painters are represented in the University Prints. See note on illustrations in The Chautau-quan, September, 1908, page 84. Original paintings by many of these artists may be seen in the Wilstack Collection, Philadelphia, and in the galleries of Boston, New York, Washington, and Chicago.

SEARCH AND REVIEW QUESTIONS ON REQUIRED READING WILL BE FOUND IN THE ROUND TABLE SECTION AT THE BACK OF THIS MAGAZINE.

(End of C. L. S. C. Required Reading, pages 322-389.)

The Progress of the German Woman

By Mary Alice Barrows

TO discuss with fairness the German women of today is an undertaking which would require much investigation and broad acquaintance within their various circles. Their characteristics and conditions vary so greatly with their rank and locality, that a general estimate seems almost impossible.

Certain qualities they have, however, seemingly "in the blood," else their development would scarcely have led to the conditions existing among the more advanced classes. As the eastern, western and southern woman of our own land, the business and society woman, the educated and the half educated or wholly untrained woman all differ in essentials in America, so the German woman is of different thought, purpose, and undertaking, according to her environment. The Berlin woman is a class apart, the peasant woman as much so. The Hanover and the Munich woman have each their distinguishing difference aside from their language, and the educated and uneducated divisions throughout are even less to be compared in Germany than in our own land.

But we may take them in general upon three different bases, and form an approximate idea of the purposes and.

tendencies of the women of the land at present. They separate most comprehensively into official circles, educated circles, laboring circles.

The "official" circle, which of course does not exclude a certain proportion of the "educated," stands for the high social life. As the same scandal-breeding habits of thought and life exist among the four hundred of any country, so this class includes the choicely gowned and socially fast women. Their distinctive feature, as of the German rather than the American "high life," lies in the fact that their social value and influence rests in the rank of the husband. not in their own personality. The wife of the lesser officer must in all things show marked deference to the wife of the superior officer-and right there lies the one trait to be found throughout the land in nearly all its classes. It seems a demoralizing subserviency, it requires not wholesome respect and its symbols, but cringing self-belittlement to those women, not of higher worth, but of higher rank, the rank depending upon the title of the man she too nearly serves. For always the woman is subordinate to the man. The dawn of a new self respect is already spreading, however, and a movement towards a better proportioned relation is becoming fruitful among the more active circles.

There is, however, a softness of culture and thoroughness of intellect resultant from the education of these favored women, which untainted by the grossness and superficiality of their social intercourse, yields a very charming, thoroughly feminine woman. Dependence upon title makes them of necessity exclusive, their code of deference to superior officers tends to make them equally haughty toward those beneath them in rank. They are near enough the center of social illumination—the royal court—to make them a class to be considered above all else and all people. And since the awed public grant this foolish homage, theirs is a life rather too free from the restraining influence of personal criticism. The basis of office rather than personal attainment of character, has, it is plain, an unhealthy influence upon these women so delightfully educated in all things lit-

erary or of the art world, so deplorably undeveloped in independent thought and generous regarding of one's fellow men.

And that is much the criticism to be made throughout, in the educational provisions for the women of Germany. From childhood on, their education is almost exclusively literary and domestic. Until now there have been no mixed schools: the girls have been on one side of the fence, the boys on the other. The girls have been learning of literature, art, and the languages, and instructed in the things which fit them for eminently successful housekeepers. The boys, besides their literary studies have had their reasoning powers developed and been trained for practical, active life. It is interesting to observe that the usual German housewife understands her housekeeping according to the needs and appliances of the class in which she moves, in a way quite superior to the ordinary woman of America. She does not always understand the science of combining certain foods, but she nearly always knows and uses the right combination. And in various phases of her duties, the same traditional customs which she practises lead to really skilful home-making.

Trained from babyhood to believe the embellishments of life to be the peculiarly feminine inheritance, her best education has been giving her only her worthy accomplishments, in careful exclusion from the youth being much more broadly educated on the other side of the wall. Could it well lead to any other condition than that of humble submission to the men of the land?

And that in its turn can scarcely do otherwise than foster the one life purpose for a girl—to find a man to marry. Not to find a good man to marry, not to found a home for the sake of that home, but to be known as "Mrs." instead of a "Miss." One noticeable indication of this can be seen in the modes of dress. The tendency is too much to dress to please the fancy of the men, regardless of real taste or personal adaptation. Of course in every land the young girl hopes to win the approval of the young men in her attire, and is much influenced by that desire, but the

wish has become a motive in too many cases in Germany. Personality expressed in tasteful dress has too often yielded to unsuitable adornment meant to please the eye of the allpowerful men. Just now, the "reform dress" is the badge of independence. Cut wholly without regard to its effect upon the eye, it is a very comfortable, but equally ugly, form of dress. The woman who is following her own interests without desire for marriage, very often adopts this dress! Could anything be much more significant? It seems to speak too plainly the fact that the idea in tasteful dress is not to make one's presence pleasing, one's personality attractive, but to win the approval of the men. If no husband is desired, why dress becomingly? Suicide also tells its pitiful tale. The rate of suicide is very high, and in the majority of cases the cause is found to be despondency over marriage,—not altogether love trouble, but a disappointment from one cause or another, in a hope of marriage. 'And this is not strange when one catches its significance. A "Miss" has until recently been cruelly unprotected and ill treated after her early womanhood is reached. In no way trained, either in thought or purpose, to take care of her own livelihood, she was in very trying conditions when she attempted to face her own problems. Naturally then, her first aim has been to get married some way, to any sort of a man, so long as he was not below her in station.

Happily for both woman and man, that day has passed its noon. Women of Germany's educated classes are demanding other education, and are slowly gaining it. There is even a beginning in mixed schools, where boys and girls may learn together,—but that is very new, and frightens many good Germans very much! However, it is sure to gain ground eventually, if present progress on the part of the women continues. They are already demanding in their education a wider development of their reasoning powers, and some real insight into the problem of the outer world. Now they are reaching out for the means through which they may meet a newly enlarged idea of motherhood. And of course, with broader education, more of independent pur-

pose and less of unwomanly seeking for a marriage will result.

To meet socially, the woman of the "educated" class is quite a delight. Conservative in mind, her little manners and ideas of etiquette are very set and allow of small variation. But they are all pretty, graceful customs when not quaintly stiff. Her literary and art training coupled with her conversational ability, make her teresting and often very charming companion, guest or hostess. One feels a difference in her favor when discussing certain subjects, but often becomes conscious of an impassable chasm caused by difference in conception and view point, when a topic requiring free investigation or unhampered judgment is ventured upon. If she can add breadth of view and independent study to her present intellectual acquirement, she will become a very fine type of woman. But before this can prevail, much of a certain narrow conservatism must be overcome, and her spirit must grow bolder, her purpose soar higher. She is often a real child in grasp while a woman of intellect. Rather the direct opposite to the American woman's tendency!

Among the less favored, the hard working class, conditions are distressing. Lack of opportunity goes hand in hand with lack of purpose. With no school training other than their mite of thorough elementary and domestic instruction, they are struggling with poverty in a world whose every gift must come from the men, who in all things have right of way. It is a dreary prospect for a young girl who wishes to protect her womanhood and cherish her self respect. Little is open to her beyond very poorly paid hard work, unless she be the favored of some more or less condescending man. As men's earnings are also meager, prohibiting any justifiable marriage in most cases, the girls who marry at all comfortably are very fortunate.

Ignorance seldom discerns, and naturally the prevailing thought of the girl is "marry." This idea, over-developed among the educated people leads of course to error, but made the only hope of endurable existence among unthinking classes, it becomes most deplorable and a serious destructive influence in their chance for betterment. In a small town with healthy influences, the girl grows to the wholly purposeless, submissive, gentle woman. But in the cities! In Berlin a girl born to the life of a clerk or its like, has to yield almost her very youth to keep her ideal and often, her honor. For there are few friends for her. She who has other ambitions than that of chance acquaintances and happy patronage from the men, stands pitifully alone. It is so in all lands, but exaggerated by the slowly yielding class distinction in Germany.

To be born into a family of good standing and sufficient means in Germany today, means for the girl the opportunity to become a very fine, though still a somewhat restricted, woman. A culture of taste, feeling and manner to be envied by any land, are open to her. And slowly, too, a broader independence is becoming her birthright. But to be born the daughter of a laborer or small merchant her chance lies largely in her luck in marrying! She cannot resort to teaching small schools, for such positions are not easy to attain. Yielding only a meager salary, they demand a high degree of preparation involving both time and expense which the average girl cannot afford. So that chance is open only to the very fortunate and exceptionally able ones among them. This is good for the schools, but hard upon the salary seekers. In Berlin, her lot is hard, and her choice lies between her honor and a reasonable share of the pleasure of her own class.

So a summary of the circumstances of the women of Germany cannot easily be given briefly and with justice. But that in all their circles their life has been too confined and and that their better women are now demanding better things, we may say without hesitation; and, too, that they are today a very delightful class of women in their homes, and will undoubtedly become a preëminently fine class of women when the present movement toward expansion has had time to yield its results.

Famous European Short Stories

Tatyana Borissovna and Her Nephew*

By Ivan Turgenev

GIVE me your hand, gentle reader, and come along with me. It is glorious weather; there is a tender blue in the May sky; the smooth young leaves of the willows glisten as though they had been polished; the wide even road is all covered with that delicate grass with the little reddish stalk that the sheep are so fond of nibbling; to the right and left, over the long sloping hillside, the green rye is softly waving; the shadows of small clouds glide in thin long streaks over it. In the distance is the dark mass of forests, the glitter of ponds, yellow patches of village; larks in hundreds are soaring, singing, falling headlong with outstretched necks, hopping about the clods; the crows on the highroad stand still, look at you, peck at the earth, let you drive close up, and with two hops lazily move aside. On a hill beyond a ravine a peasant is plowing; a piebald colt, with a cropped tail and ruffled mane, is running on unsteady legs after its mother; its shrill whinnying reaches us. We drive on into the birch wood, and drink in the strong, sweet, fresh fragrance. Here we are at the boundaries. The coachman gets down: the horses snort; the trace-horses look round; the center horse in the shafts switches his tail, and turns his head up towards the wooden yoke above it . . . the great gate opens creaking; the coachman seats himself . Drive on! the village is before us. Passing five homesteads, and turning off to the right, we drop down into a hollow and drive along a dyke, the farther side of a small pond; behind the round tops of the lilacs and apple-trees a wooden roof, once red, with two chimneys, comes into sight; the coachman keeps along the hedges to the left, and to the spasmodic and drowsy baying of three pug dogs he drives through the wide open gates, whisks smartly round the broad courtyard past the stable and the barn, gallantly salutes the old housekeeper,

^{*}Reprinted from "A Sportsman's Sketches" by Ivan Turgenev, through the permission and courtesy of the publishers, The Macmillan Co.

who is stepping sideways over the high lintel in the open doorway of the storehouse, and pulls up at last before the steps of a dark house with light windows. . . . We are at Tatyana Borissovna's. And here she is herself opening the window and nodding at us. . . . "Good day, Ma'am!"

Tatyana Borissovna is a woman of fifty, with large prominent grey eyes, rather broad nose, rosy cheeks and a double chin. Her face is brimming over with friendliness and kindness. She was once married, but was soon left a widow. Tatyana Borissovna is a very remarkable woman. She lives on her little property, never leaving it, mixes very little with her neighbors, sees and likes none but young people. She was the daughter of very poor landowners, and received no education; in other words, she does not know French: she has never been in Moscow—and in spite of all these defects, she is so good and simple in her manners. so broad in her sympathies and ideas, so little infected with the ordinary prejudices of country ladies of small means, that one positively cannot help marvelling at her. . . . Indeed, a woman who lives all the year round in the country and does not talk scandal, nor whine, nor curtsey, is never flurried, nor depressed, nor in a flutter of curiosity, is a real marvel! She usually wears a grey taffeta gown and a white cap with lilac streamers; she is fond of good cheer, but not to excess; all the preserving, pickling, salting she leaves to her housekeeper. "What does she do all day long?" you ask . . . "Does she read?" No. she doesn't read, and, to tell the truth, books are not written for her. . . . If there are no visitors with her, Tatyana Borissovna sits by herself at the window knitting a stocking in winter; in summer time she is in the garden. planting and watering her flowers, playing for hours together with her cats, or feeding her doves. . . . She does not take much part in the management of her estate. But if a visitor pays her a call-some young neighbor whom she likes-Tatyana Borissovna is all life directly; she makes him sit down, pours him out some tea, listens to his chat. laughs, sometimes pats his cheek, but says little herself; in

trouble or sorrow she comforts and gives good advice. How many people have confided their family secrets and the griefs of their hearts to her, and have wept over her hands! At times she sits opposite her visitor, leaning lightly on her elbow, and looks with such sympathy into his face, smiles so affectionately, that he cannot help feeling: "What a dear, good woman you are, Tatyana Borissovna! Let me tell vou what is in my heart." One feels happy and warm in her small snug rooms; in her house it is always, so to speak, fine weather. Tatyana Borissovna is a wonderful woman, but no one wonders at her; her sound good sense, her breadth and firmness, her warm sympathy in the joys and sorrows of others—in a word, all her qualities are so innate in her: they are no trouble, no effort, to her. . . . One cannot fancy her otherwise, and so one feels no need to thank her. She is particularly fond of watching the pranks and follies of young people; she folds her hands over her bosom, throws back her head, then all of a sudden she heaves a sigh, and says, "Ah, my children, my children!" Sometimes one longs to go up to her, take hold of her hands and say: "Let me tell you, Tatyana Borissovna, you don't know your own value; for all your simplicity and lack of learning, you're an extraordinary creature!" Her very name has a sweet familiar ring; one is glad to utter it; it calls up a kindly smile at once. How often, for instance, have I chanced to ask a peasant: "Tell me, my friend, how am I to get to Gratchevka?" let us say. "Well, sir, you go on first to Vyazovoe, and from there to Tatyana Borissovna's, and from Tatyana Borissovna's anyone will show you the way." And at the name of Tatyana Borissovna the peasant wags his head in quite a special way. household is small, in accordance with her means. The house, the laundry, the stores and the kitchen, are in charge of the housekeeper, Agafya, once her nurse, a good-natured, tearful, toothless creature: she has under her two stalwart girls with stout crimson cheeks like Antonovsky apples. The duties of valet, steward, and waiter are filled by Policarp, an extraordinary old man of seventy, a queer fellow, full

of erudition, once a violinist and worshipper of Viotti, with a personal hostility to Napoleon, or, as he calls him, Bonaparty, and a passion for nightingales. He always keeps five or six of the latter in his room; in early spring he will sit for whole days together by the cage, waiting for the first trill, and when he hears it he covers his face with his hands, and moans, "Oh, piteous, piteous!" and sheds tears in floods. Policarp has, to help him, his grandson Vasya, a curlyheaded, sharp-eyed boy of twelve; Policarp adores him. and grumbles at him from morning till night. He undertakes his education, too. "Vasya," he says, "say Bonaparty was a scoundrel." "And what'll you give me grandad?" "What'll I give you? . . . I'll give you nothing. . . . Why, what are you? Aren't you a Russian?" "I'm a Mtchanin, grandad; I was born in Mtchanin." "Oh, silly dunce; but where is Mtchanin?" "How can I tell?" "Mtchanin's in Russia, silly!" "Well, what then, if it is in Russia?" "What then? Why, his Highness the late Prince Mihalo Ilraionovitch Golenishtchev-Kutuzov-Smolensky, with God's aid. graciously drove Bonaparty out of the Russian territories. It's on that event the song was composed: 'Bonaparty's in no mood to dance, He's lost the garters he brought from France.' . . . Do you understand? he liberated your fatherland." "And what's that to do with me?" "Ah! you silly boy! Why, if his Highness Prince Mihalo Ilarionovitch hadn't driven out Bonaparty, some mounseer would have been beating you about the head with a stick this minute. He'd come up to you like this, and say: 'Koman voo porty voo?' and then a box on the ear!" "But I'd give him one in the belly with my fist." "But he'd go on: 'Bonzhur, Bonzhur, veny ici,' and then a cuff on the head." "And I'd give him one in his legs, his bandy legs." "You're quite right, their legs are bandy. . . . Well, but suppose he tied your hands?" "I wouldn't let him; I'd call Mihay the coachman to help me." "But, Vasya, suppose you weren't a match for the Frenchy even with Mihay?" "Not a match for him! See how strong Mihay is!" "Well, and what would you do with him?" "We'd get him on his back, we

would." "And he'd shout, 'Pardon, pardon, seevooplay!" "We'd tell him, 'None of your seevooplays, you old Frenchy!" "Bravo, Vasya! . . . Well, now then, shout, 'Bonaparty's a scoundrel!" "But you must give me some sugar!" "You scamp!"

Of the neighboring ladies Tatyana Borissovna sees very little; they do not care about going to see her, and she does not know how to amuse them; the sound of their chatter sends her asleep; she starts, tries to keep her eyes open, and drops off again. Tatyana Borissovna is not fond of women as a rule. One of her friends, a good, harmless young man, had a sister, an old maid of thirty-eight and a half, a good natured creature, but exaggerated, affected, and enthusiastic. Her brother had often talked to her of their neighbor. One fine morning our old maid has her horse saddled, and, without a word to anyone, sallies off to Tatyana Borissovna's. In her long habit, a hat on her head, a green veil and floating curls, she went into the hall, and passing by the panic-stricken Vasya, who took her for a wood-witch, ran into the drawing-room. Tatyana Borissovna, scared, tried to rise, but her legs sank under her. "Tatyana Borissovna," began the visitor in a supplicating voice, "forgive my temerity; I am the sister of your friend, Alexy Nikolaevitch K-, and I have heard so much about you from him that I resolved to make your acquaintance." "Greatly honored," muttered the bewildered lady. The sister flung off her hat, shook her curls, seated herself near Tatyana Borissovna; took her by the hand. . . . "So this is she," she began in a pensive voice fraught with feeling: "this is that sweet clear, noble, holy being! This is she! that woman at once so simple and so deep! How glad I am! how glad I am! How we shall love each other! I can breathe easily at last. . . . I always fancied her just so," she added in a whisper, her eyes riveted on the eyes of Tatyana Borissovna. "You won't be angry with me, will you, my dear, kind friend?" "Really, I'm delighted! . . . Won't you have some tea?" The lady smiled patronizingly: "Wie wahr, wie unreflectirt," she murmured, as it were to herself. "Let me embrace vou, my dear one!" Digitized by Google

The old maid stayed three hours at Tatyana Borissoxna's, never ceasing talking for an instant. She tried to explain to her new acquaintance all her own significance. Directly after the unexpected visitor had departed, the poor lady took a bath, drank some lime-flower water, and took to her bed. But the next day the old maid came back, stayed four hours, and left, promising to come to see Tatyana Borissovna every day. Her idea, please to observe, was to develop, to complete the education of so rich a nature, to use her own expression, and she would probably have really been the death of her, if she had not, in the first place, been utterly disillusioned as regards her brother's friend within a fortnight, and secondly, fallen in love with a young student on a visit in the neighborhood, with whom she at once rushed into a fervid and active correspondence; in her missives she consecrated him, as the manner of such is, to a noble, holy life, offered herself wholly a sacrifice, asked only for the name of sister, launched into endless descriptions of nature, made allusions to Goethe, Schiller, Bettina and German philosophy, and drove the young man at last to the blackest desperation. But youth asserted itself: one fine morning he woke up with such a furious hatred for "his sister and best of friends" that he almost killed his valet in his passion, and was snappish for a long while after at the slightest allusion to elevated and disinterested passion. But from that time forth Tatvana Borissovna began to avoid all intimacy with ladies of the neighborhood more than ever.

Alas! nothing is lasting on this earth. All I have related as to the way of life of my kindhearted neighbor is a thing of the past; the peace that used to reign in her house has been destroyed for ever. For more than a year now there has been living with her a nephew, an artist from Petersburg. This is how it came about:

Eight years ago, there was living with Tatyana Borissovna a boy of twelve, an orphan, the son of her brother, Andryusha. Andryusha had large, clear, humid eyes, a tiny little mouth, a regular nose, and a fine lofty brow. He spoke in a low, sweet voice, was attentive and coaxing with

visitors, kissed his auntie's hand with an orphan's sensibility; and one hardly had time to show himself before he had put a chair for one. He had no mischievous tricks; he was never noisy; he would sit by himself in a corner with a book, and with such sedateness and propriety, never even leaning back in his chair. When a visitor came in Andryusha would get up, with a decorous smile and a flush; when the visitor went away he would sit down again, pull out of his pocket a brush and looking-glass, and brush his hair. From his earliest years he had shown a taste for drawing. Whenever he got hold of a piece of paper, he would ask Agafya the housekeeper for a pair of scissors at once, carefully cut a square piece out of the paper, trace a border round it and set to work: he would draw an eve with an immense pupil, or a Grecian nose, or a house with a chimney and smoke coming out of it in the shape of a corkscrew, a dog, en face, looking rather like a bench, or a tree with two pigeons on it, and would sign it: "Drawn by Andrei Byelovzorov, such a day in such a year, in the village of Maliya-Briki." He used to toil with special industry for a fortnight before Tatvana Borissovna's birthday; he was the first to present his congratulations and offer her a roll of paper tied up with a pink ribbon. Tatyana Borissovna would kiss her nephew and undo the knot; the roll was unfolded and presented to the inquisitive gaze of the spectator, a round boldly sketched temple in sepia, with columns and an altar in the center; on the altar lay a burning heart and a wreath, while above, on a curling scroll, was inscribed in legible characters: "To my aunt and benefactress, Tatyana Borissovna Bogdanov, from her dutiful and loving nephew. as a token of his deepest affection." Tatyana Borissovna would kiss him again and give him a silver rouble. She did not, though, feel any warm affection for him; Andryusha's fawning ways were not quite to her taste. Meanwhile, Andryusha was growing up; Tatyana Borissovna began to be anxious about his future. An unexpected incident solved the difficulty to her.

One day eight years ago she received a visit from a certain Mr. Benevolensky, Piotr Mihalitch, a college councillor with a decoration. Mr. Benevolensky had at one time held an official post in the nearest district town, and had been assiduous in his visits to Tatyana Borissovna; then he had moved to Petersburg, got into the ministry, and attained a rather important position, and on one of the numerous journeys he took in the discharge of his official duties, he remembered his old friend, and came back to see her, with the intention of taking a rest for two days from his official labors "in the bosom of the peace of nature." Tatyana Borissovna greeted him with her usual cordiality, and Mr. Benevolensky. . . . But before we proceed with the rest of the story, gentle reader, let us introduce you to this new personage.

Mr. Benevolensky was a stoutish man, of middle height and mild appearance, with little short legs and little fat hands; he wore a roomy and excessively spruce frock-coat, a high broad crayat, snow-white linen, a gold chain on his silk waistcoat, a gem-ring on his forefinger, and a white wig on his head; he spoke softly and persuasively, trod noiselessly, and had an amiable smile, an amiable look in his eyes, and an amiable way of settling his chin in his cravat; he was, in fact, an amiable person altogether. God had given him a heart, too, of the softest; he was easily moved to tears and to transports; moreover, he was all aglow with disinterested passion for art: disinterested it certainly was, for Mr. Benevolensky, if the truth must be told, knew absolutely nothing about art. One is set wondering, indeed, whence, by virtue of what mysterious uncomprehended forces, this passion had come upon him. He was. to all appearance, a practical, even prosaic person . . . however, we have a good many people of the same sort among us in Russia.

Their devotion to art and artists produces in these people an inexpressible mawkishness; it is distressing to have to do with them and to talk to them; they are perfect logs smeared with honey. They never, for instance, call Raphael,

Raphael, or Correggio, Correggio; "the divine Sanzio, the incomparable di Allegri," they murmur, and always with the broadest vowels. Every pretentious, conceited, homebred mediocrity they hail as a genius: "the blue sky of Italy," "the lemons of the South," "the balmy breezes of the banks of the Brenta," are forever on their lips. "Ah, Vasya, Vasya," or "Oh, Sasha, Sasha," they say to one another with deep feeling "we must away to the South. . . . we are Greeks in soul—ancient Greeks." One may observe them at exhibitions before the works of some Russian painters (these gentlemen, it should be noted, are, for the most part, passionate patriots). First they step back a couple of paces, and throw back their heads; then they go up to the picture again; their eyes are suffused with an oily mois-. . . "There you have it, my God!" they say at last, in voices broken with emotion; "there's soul, soul! Ah! what feeling, what feeling! Ah, what soul he has put into it! what a mass of soul! . . . And how he has thought it out! thought it out like a master!" And, oh! the pictures in their own drawing-rooms! Oh, the artists that come to them in the evenings, drink tea, and listen to their conversation! And the views in perspective they make them of their own rooms, with a broom in the foreground, a little heap of dust on the polished floor, a yellow samovar on a table near the window, and the master of the house himself in skull-cap and dressing-gown, with a brilliant streak of sunlight falling on his cheek! Oh, the long-haired nurslings of the Muse, wearing spasmodic and contemptuous smiles, that cluster about them! Oh, the young ladies, with their faces of greenish pallor, who squeal over their pianos! for that is the established rule with us in Russia; a man cannot be devoted to one art alone—he must have them all. And so it is not to be wondered at that these gentlemen extend their powerful patronage to Russian literature also, especially to The Jacob Sannazars are writdramatic literature. . . . ten for them; the struggle of unappreciated talent against the whole world, depicted a thousand times over, still moves them profoundly. . .

The day after Mr. Benevolensky's arrival Tatyana B > rissovna told her nephew at tea-time to show their guest his drawings. "Why, does he draw?" said Mr. Benevolensky, with some surprise, and he turned with interest to Andryusha. "Yes, he draws," said Tatyana Borissovna; "he's so fond of it! and he does it all alone, without a master." "Ah! show me, show me," cried Mr. Benevolensky. Andryusha, blushing and smiling, brought the visitor his sketch-book. Mr. Benevolensky began turning it over with the air of a connoisseur. "Good, young man," he pronounced at last; "good, very good." And he patted Andryusha on the head. Andryusha intercepted his hand and kissed it. "Fancy, now, talent like that! . . . I congratulate you, Tatyana Borissovna." "But what am I to do, Piotr Mahalitch? I can't give him a teacher here. To have one from the town is of great expense; our neighbors, the Artamonovs, have a drawing-master, and they say an excellent one, but his mistress forbids his giving lessons to outsiders." "Hnı," pronounced Mr. Benevolensky; he pondered and looked askance at Andryusha. "Well, we will talk it over," he added suddenly, rubbing his hands. The same day he begged Tatyana Borissovna's permission for an interview with her alone. They shut themselves up together. In half an hour they called Andryusha—Andryusha went in. Mr. Benevolensky was standing at the window with a light flush on his face and a beaming expression. Tatyana Borissovna was sitting in a corner wiping her eyes. "Come Andryusha," she said at last, "you must thank Piotr Mahalitch; he will take you under his protection; he will take you to Petersburg." Andryusha almost fainted on the spot. "Tell me candidly," began Mr. Benevolensky, in a voice filled with dignity and patronizing indulgence; "do you want to be an artist, young man? Do you feel yourself consecrated to the holy service of Art?" "I want to be an artist, Piotr Mihalitch," Andryusha declared in a trembling voice. "I am delighted, if so it be. It will, of course," continued Mr. Benevolensky, "be hard for you to part from your reverend aunt; you must feel the liveliest gratitude to her." "I adore my auntie," Andryusha interrupted, blinking. "Of course, of course, that's readily understood, and does you great credit; but, on the other hand, consider the pleasure that in the future . . . your success . . ." "Kiss me, Andryusha," muttered the kind-hearted lady. Andyusha flung himself on her neck. "There, now, thank your benefactor." Andryusha embraced Mr. Benevolensky's stomach, and stretching on tiptoe, reached his hand and imprinted a kiss, which his benefactor, though with some show of reluctance accepted. . . . He had, to be sure, to pacify the child, and, after all, might reflect that he deserved it. Two days later, Mr. Benevolensky departed, taking with him his new protégé.

During the first three years of Andryusha's absence he wrote pretty often, sometimes enclosing drawings in his letters. From time to time Mr. Benevolensky added a few words, for the most part of approbation; then the letters began to be less and less frequent, and at last ceased altogether. A whole year passed without a word from her nephew, and Tatyana Borissovna was beginning to be uneasy when suddenly she got the following note:

"Dearest Auntie—Piotr Mahalitch, my patron, died three days ago. A severe paralytic stroke has deprived me of my sole support. To be sure I am now twenty. I have made considerable progress during the last seven years; I have the greatest confidence in my talent, and can make my living by means of it; I do not despair; but all the same send me, if you can, as soon as convenient, 250 roubles. I kiss your hand and remain . . . " etc.

Tatyana Borissovna sent her nephew 250 roubles. Two months later he asked for more. She got together every penny she had and sent it him. Not six weeks after the second donation he was asking for a third time for help, ostensibly to buy colors for a portrait bespoken by Princess Tertereshenev. Tatyana Borissovna refused. "Under these circumstances," he wrote to her, "I propose coming to you to regain my health in the country." And in the May of the same year Andryusha did, in fact, return to Maliya-Briki.

Tatyana Borissovna did not recognize him for the first minute. From his letter she had expected to see a wasted invalid, and she beheld a stout, broad-shouldered fellow, with a big red face and greasy, curly hair. The pale, slender little Andryusha had turned into the stalwart Andrei Ivanovitch Byelovzorov. And it was not only his exterior that was transformed. The modest spruceness, the sedateness and tidiness of his early years, was replaced by a careless swagger and slovenliness quite insufferable; he rolled from side to side as he walked, lolled in easy chairs, put his elbows on the table, stretched and yawned, and behaved rudely to his aunt and the servants. "I'm an artist," he would say; "a free Cossack! That's our sort!" Sometimes he did not touch a brush for whole days together; then the inspiration, as he called it, would come upon him; then he would swagger about as if he were drunk, clumsy, awkward, and noisy; his cheeks were flushed with a coarse color, his eyes dull; he would launch into discourses upon his talent. his success, his development, the advance he was making. It turned out in actual fact that he had barely talent enough to produce passable portraits. He was a perfect ignoramus, had read nothing; why should an artist read, indeed? Nature, freedom, poetry were his fitting elements; he need do nothing but shake his curls, talk, and suck away at his eternal cigarette! Russian audacity is a fine thing, but it doesn't suit every one; and Polezhaevs at second-hand, without the genius, are insufferable beings. Andrei Ivanovitch went on living at his aunt's; he did not seem to find the bread of charity bitter, notwithstanding the proverb. Visitors to the home found him a mortal nuisance. He would sit at the piano (a piano, too, had been installed at Tatyana Borissovna's) and begin strumming "The Swift Sledge" with one finger; he would stroke some chords, tap on the keys, and for hours together he would how! Valamov's songs, "The Solitary Pine," or "No, doctor, no, don't come to me," in the most distressing manner, and his eyes seemed to disappear altogether, his cheeks were so puffed out and tense as drums. . . . Then he would suddenly strike up: "Be

still, distracting passion's tempest?" . . . Tatyana Borissovna positively shuddered. "It is a strange thing," she observed to me one day, "the songs they compose nowadays; there's something desperate about them; in my day they were very different. We had mournful songs, too, but it was always a pleasure to hear them. . . . For instance:

"'Come, come to me in the meadow,
Where I am awaiting thee;
Come, come to me in the meadow,
Where I'm shedding tears for thee...
Alas! thou'rt coming to the meadow,

But too late, dear love, for me!"

Tatyana Borissovna smiled shyly.

"I agonize, I agonize," yelled her nephew in the next room.

"Be quiet, 'Andryusha!"

"My soul's consumed apart from thee!" the indefatigable singer continued.

Tatyana Borissovna shook her head.

"Ah, these artists! these artists!"

A year has gone since then. Byelovzorov is still living at his aunt's, and still talking of going back to Petersburg. He has grown as broad as he is long in the country. His aunt—who could have imagined such a thing?—idolizes him, and the young girls of the neighborhood are falling in love with him.

Many of her old friends have given up going to Tatyana Borissovna's.

The Church of the Madeleine

By Edwina Spencer

THE Church of St. Mary Magdalen is considered the most fashionable church in Paris and is famous for its sacred music. During Passion Week and on great religious festivals the orchestral and vocal music is very beautiful.

The building, which is in the style of a Greek temple, is 354 feet long, 141 feet wide, and 100 feet high, standing upon a basement eleven feet in height, and surrounded by fine Corinthian columns. The pediments (gables), at either end, and the niches along the side are filled with modern sculptures of saints and religious subjects. The bronze doors are embellished with illustrations of the Ten Commandments. The interior forms a single immense hall, having no windows and lighted by openings in the roof. Its sides are lined with small chapels; and the whole church is gorgeously decorated with sculpture and painting, and with a lavish use of gilding wherever possible. The subjects portraved are Biblical, but most of them are connected with Mary Magdalen. Above the high altar, a marble group represents her as being borne into Paradise by angels. In the apse is a large frescoe representing Christ receiving and blessing the chief champions of Christianity in the East and West; while below this Napoleon is depicted, receiving the Imperial Crown from the hands of Pope Pius VII.

In 1806 Napoleon ordered the erection of this building upon the foundations of a church which had been planned and begun under Louis XV but stopped by the Revolution. Napoleon decreed it to be a "Temple of Glory," in honor of the soldiers of the Grand Army. After the restoration it was finished as a church. Behind the Madeleine, on Tuesdays and Fridays, there is held a very fashionable and popular flower-market. The Madeleine is situated in the center of the busy life of Paris where the "Boulevards" teem with activity, and at certain hours are crowded with vehicles. In the street which leads to it are situated many of the fine shops.

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The Church of St. Mary Magdalen-"The Madeleine"--Paris.



Castle of Old Heidelberg, Germany, and Bridge over River outlined in Fire on a Gala Night—An Annual Illumination. Reproduced from the "Illustrated London News."



Hugo Grotius: the Founder of International Law*

HUGO GROTIUS, founder of the science of International Law, was born in Delft, Holland, on Easter day, 1583. "It was," writes Mr. Andrew D. White, "at the crisis of the struggle between Spain and the Netherlands. That struggle had already continued for twenty years, and just after the close of his first year, in the very town where he was lying in his cradle, came its most fearful event, that which maddened both sides,—the assassination of William of Orange, nominally by Balthazar Gerard, really by Philip II of Spain."

It is difficult for people of a modern time, in which war is by no means extinct, to realize the inhuman nature of warfare and political intrigue in the century to which Grotius was born. Mr. White in a hasty survey of the cruelties of the period recalls both the massacre of St. Bartholomew of 1572 in France, and the merciless struggle of the Netherlands with Spain, a struggle in which the Inquisition with the sanction of Phillip II condemned all the inhabitants of Holland to death as heretics. That this edict was not carried into effect verbatim was due not to lack of inclination on the part of the Spaniards, but merely inability to realize it completely. In such a period when the whole of Europe was in a state of constant turmoil, when there was no international public opinion to control the acts of ambitious and unprincipled rulers, when religious intolerance was more bitter than in any other period of history, it was eminently

^{*}The following account of the life and work of Grotius is based upon articles which Mr. Andrew D. White contributed to *The Atlantic Monthly* of December, 1904, and January, 1905.

fitting that a man should be born who by the force of his intellect and the nobility of his character should create for the world a code of international morality, the basis of modern international law.

Hugo Grotius showed his remarkable powers at an extremely early age. It is said that at the age of nine years his Latin verses won the applause of scholars; that at twelve years he was admitted to the University of Leyden; that at the age of fifteen he held, after the scholastic fashion of the day, public disputes in mathematics, philosophy, and jurisprudence. At the age of fourteen, moreover, he revised a vast encyclopedia, one of the most learned books of the day, the revision of which demanded a scholarly acquaintance with all classical authors and a thorough knowledge of such subjects as rhetoric, logic, geography, arithmetic, astronomy and music. Despite these intellectual acquirements Grotius remained unspoiled, for his moral gifts were no less extraordinary than his mental accomplishments. At the age of fifteen when as an attaché to the Dutch ambassador to France he excited the admiration of all the great French scholars and of the king, Henri IV. Yet when he returned to Holland, unmoved by the flatteries he had received, he again took up his scholarly work.

In order to guard himself against the dangers of pedantry Grotius now determined to take up the study of jurisprudence and as an advocate keep himself in touch with the current of life of his time. In this branch of study as in everything else he was immediately successful and soon became Advocate General of the Treasury for the provinces of Holland and Zeeland. It was while he was engaged in these legal duties that Grotius laid the foundation for his most enduring work in the study of international law. The first of his youthful essays in this new field of human thought was written by Grotius in 1604, though never published. The title of this was "De jure predae." This was followed in 1609 by the first of his books which became widely known, that entitled "Mare Liberum." This was an argument which endeavored to overthrow the claims put forth

by many of the more important European nations to absolute and exclusive control over the high seas or portions thereof. Certain nations claimed the right of prohibiting vessels or fishers from other countries from encroaching upon these private waters without special permission. The Pope in 1493 had even gone so far as to divide the seas between Spain and Portugal. Naturally the effort to enforce these illogical and unjustifiable pretensions caused much international jealousy and warfare, and moreover, prevented the peaceful expansion of commerce.

Mr. White says of the work of Grotius:

"His whole argument was mainly a development of two postulates. The first of these was that the right of nations to communicate with one another had been universally recognized; that it was based on a fundamental law of humanity; that, the liberty of the sea being necessary to enable nations to communicate with one another, it could not be taken away by any power whatever. The second was that the sea should not be made property on account of its immensity, its lack of stability, its want of fixed limits. This argument in places seemed thin. The book, after the custom of the time, was filled with an array—far more than sufficient—of learned citations, but its most significant feature—that which went to make it the herald of a new epoch—was that it took its stand upon the inalienable rights of mankind; that it mainly deduced these rights neither from revelation nor from national enactments, but from natural law as ascertained by the human mind."

The principles so powerfully set forth by Grotius were not, it is true, immediately, or even soon, put into actual practice by the maritime nations of Europe. Nevertheless his arguments were so strong that many attempts were made by the scholars of his day to refute them; and because of their essential logic they gradually found their way into the practice of nations, until, at a comparatively recent date, it has become universally recognized that the sea is common property, a neutral ground on which the rights of all nations are equal.

In the years which immediately followed these successes Grotius extended his reputation for scholarship by works in many fields of thought. Many honors were heaped upon him and he held position after position of growing importance in the service of the state. But permanent good fortune seemed impossible in such an age to a man who combined the highest morality with great ability. The un-

fortunate religious conflict which culminated in the judicial murder of John Barneveld brought disaster also to Grotius, the friend and follower of Barneveld. These two men both unselfishly patriotic, seeking only the best interests of Holland, incurred the enmity of the Stadtholder Maurice and of the religious faction with which he allied himself. Barneveld was executed. Grotius, who had striven for peace and who had done his best to promote a spirit of religious toleration, was imprisoned for life. Attempts were also made to blacken the character of Grotius by showing him to have been a traitor to his friend Barneveld, but recent historical investigations have shown the charges to have been purely malicious.

Grotius remained in confinement for two years, devoting himself during that time to the pursuance of his studies. He then escaped in a most romantic manner: Through the aid of his wife he was smuggled from his prison in a large chest which was supposed to contained borrowed books. He fled in disguise to France and was there received with honors, granted a pension, and recognized as one of the great scholars of the age.

In 1622, during his exile in France, Grotius devoted himself for three years to the completion of his greatest work, that which served as the foundation for international law, "De jure belli ac pacis." The work was published in 1625, and, as might be expected of a work of so great an import, seemed to have little immediate effect, for the reason doubtless that it was too far ahead of its time. Nevertheless it was appreciated by thoughtful and scholarly men and aroused the hostility of the Roman church which soon placed it upon the Index expurgatorious, a certain tribute to its power and originality. A practical demonstration of the effect of the work upon thinking men is, says Mr. White, to be found in the policy of Cardinal Richelieu in relation to the captured Huguenot city La Rochelle. It was customary at this period in military history to massacre the inhabitants of fortified towns which had offered resistance to a besieging force. Richelieu refrained from taking advantage of this practice of the times and his conduct is to be explained only in the light of the more humane principles of warfare laid down by Grotius. It is known that Richelieu was acquainted with the work, for he was something of a patron of Grotius, and always took a kindly interest in his behalf. Moreover, the principles laid down in the Treaty of Westphalia in 1648 at the conclusion of the Thirty Years' War give evidence of the influence of Grotius upon the ethics of international relations.

Says Mr. White of this epoch-making work of Grotius: "The first characteristics which the book of Grotius revealed were faith and foresight. Great as it was,-the most beneficent among all volumes not claiming divine inspiration—yet more won-derful than the book itself was the faith of its author. In none of the years during which he meditated it, and least of all during the years when it was written, could any other human being see in the archaic darkness of the time any tribunal which could recognize a plea for right reason in international affairs or enforce a decision upon it. The greatness of Grotius lies first of all in the fact that he saw in all this darkness one court sitting supreme to which he might make appeal, and the court—the heart and mind of man.

"What the darkness was which his eye alone could pierce was

stated in his preface. He says: 'I saw many and grave causes why I should write a work on that subject. I saw in the whole Christian world a license of fighting at which even barbarous nations might blush. Wars were begun on trifling pretexts or none at all, and carried on without any reverence for law, Divine or human. A

declaration of war seemed to let loose every crime."

Mr. White in his essay then traces the history of international relations throughout the centuries preceding the time of Grotius. It is a melancholy record of cruelty and treachery. The vanquished had no rights, and in religious warfare even more than in purely political warfare was there no pretense to an adherence to the principles of Christianity as we understand them as laid down in the New Testament. The period immediately preceding the time in which Grotius lived was, if anything, worse than any previous epoch. It was the age of the Medici, of the Inquisition, of the worst popes in the history of the church, a time which marked the lowest ebb of human morality as expressed in statecraft and religion. Thus it is doubly extraordinary that this book of Grotius should have been written at such a time; first of all because it had no predecessor in the thought of world; and second, because of the astonishing faith of its author, who, living in such a time, could look forward hopefully to a better time to come.

Grotius, says Mr. White, developed his work from two sources: the first, the principle of natural morality, the commands of justice written by God on the hearts and minds of men, these to be ascertained by right reason; and second, those things in the institutions, enactments, or ideas which the nations or gifted men have agreed upon as right, necessary or final. From these two sources Grotius derived first a so-called "Law of Nature," and second, a "Law of Nations."

In such a method there would obviously be often great conflict of authorities. In the discussion of these the genius of Grotius is most manifest. Says Mr. White:

"No man of less splendid powers, intellectual and moral, could have grappled with such opponents and triumphed over such difficulties. His genius as a reasoner, his scholarship so vast in range, his memory bringing to him the best thoughts of the best thinkers in all literature, sacred and profane, ancient and modern, his skill in applying the doctrine of Roman jurisprudence, enabled him to develop out of these elements a system. But his main guide through all the labyrinth of difficulties was his own earnestness and unselfishness, his nobility of mind, heart, and soul. He fused together right and authority on every fundamental question, and with precious results."

It is impossible to indicate the whole scope of this great work. But it will be sufficient to point out its fundamental morality which has since been embodied in the practice of international warfare. War is legitimate at all only, says the author, if just. War against infidel nations or heretics is unjust. To the question, "What cruelties practiced by a hostile force upon another are justified?" he answers, "The substance of the evil ought to be in proportion to the right sought, and the culpability of the enemy refusing to grant the right." It follows, therefore, that the massacre of prisoners or the slaughter of noncombatants can rarely, if ever, be justified.

Many more citations might be made which would reveal the nobility of the philosophy of Grotius as applied to many important points in the relations of hostile states. But most important for us of today is his discussion of the possibility of the pacific settlement of international disputes. Reason, he maintains, is that to which the appeal must first be made in the settlement of a disputed matter. Only when reason fails is it justifiable to resort to violence. From this principle Grotius evolves the idea of conferences for international arbitration. This principle is, of course, only imperfectly realized even today when three centuries have elapsed since its first enunciation. Grotius may, therefore, still be regarded as having matter for us to discuss.

Mr. White points out weaknesses in the method which Grotius employed. He is somewhat pedantic after the manner of his day and the repeated citation of classical authorities is of a manner tedious to the present generation. Yet a recognition of these weaknesses should not prevent us from giving the recognition due the founder of a science which seems destined to be ultimately of the vastest importance to the general welfare of humanity. As we read of the successive peace congresses and what they are endeavoring to accomplish we will do well to recall the unselfish work of the man who more than any other was responsible for their creation.

Grotius wrote other books which are important and which were received in his own day with more demonstration than that accorded his masterpiece. Moreover he again entered political life, this time in the service of Sweden, whose embassador he was to Paris. This work, however, became irksome and in the last years he returned to Holland where he was finally permitted to live in peace. He died at sea on the 28th of August, 1645, while returning from a visit to the Swedish court. His body was brought back to the Netherlands and it is said that as his coffin was borne through the streets of Rotterdam stones were thrown at it by the bigoted mob. He was buried beneath the great church of Delft, the city of his birth.



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SOME SUGGESTIONS.

Many readers will find time for a good deal of supplementary reading in connection with the "Studies in European Literature." Others will plan a campaign of summer reading to make their acquaintance with this little volume still more fruitful—and again, many of the Circles will be able to work out plans by which the leisure of the few may help to supplement the meager opportunities of the many. For instance in the study of a group of masterpieces the Circle might be divided into four groups each of which would undertake to be responsible for reading some one novel or play as assigned. All members who could, would be urged to do this supplementary work, but each member would feel responsible for not more than one masterpiece per month. Each group in charge of a given piece of work would appoint a chairman and conduct the study as seemed most practicable. In many towns a teacher of literature could be secured who would be glad to guide the discussion. Or the group could select its own leader, different members making reports according to the following suggestions. It would add much to the impression if the last half hour of the meeting were devoted to a "reading" of some of the most striking selections from the story or play.

STUDIES IN THE LITERATURE OF EUROPE.

No study is more stimulating than the works of the great masters of literature. Each interprets life as it has impressed itself upon him, and no two writers bring the same message. Just as an artist often embodies a fugitive idea in a "study" which serves as a suggestion for larger effort in the future, so the lover of literature may through a brief "study" of a masterpiece under a skilled teacher gain some insight into the mind of a creative personality and discover through this partly opened door a new world of ideas into which he may enter as time and ambition bring him the opportunity. For this reason though one may not know the work of such men as Dumas, Balzac, or Zola on all sides it is possible to see things in some measure as they saw them and feel the broadening influence of contact with men of strong individuality.



THE STUDY OF A NOVEL.

Our appreciation of a novel or a play is in proportion to our familiarity with it. This familiarity can be gained not merely by repeated reading but by wisely directed study of the novel as a work of art. Circles and readers who are able to give some special attention to the works discussed in our "Studies in European Literature" will find the following suggestions helpful. They are taken from two interesting works, "The Study of a Novel," by Selden L. Whitcomb, and "A Study of Prose Fiction," by Bliss Perry. Only a few of the many topics suggested are here given but these offer abundant material for making the study of any novel a delightful and profitable experience.

The Plot:

I. What are the main lines of action in the story? 2. How many leading characters are there? 3. Note the incidents which are introduced simply to inform the reader, either as to what is going on, or to give him further insight into the nature of the characters. 4. Discriminate between such explanatory incidents and those which really develop the characters themselves. 5. What stage of the story marks its climax? 6. Is the climax seemingly brought about by some trifling incident as often happens? 7. Has the story a subordinate plot? If so, what is its character? Does

it simply reflect the main plot or is it necessary in order to justify some feature of the main plot or is it merely introduced to give variety?

The Setting of the Story:

I. How long a period of time does the novel occupy? 2. What shorter periods are made prominent in giving emphasis to parts of the story? 3. What is the place setting in general? Has it to do with nature, social life, romantic associations, resorts of special types of characters, etc.? 4. Are these settings idealized? 5. If so, are they true to the essential qualities of the facts which they represent? 6. Is natural scenery given much prominence? 7. Has it close connection with the action of the story? 8. Is the setting of the story so important as to give a unity to it?

Characterization:

I. How is a given character introduced? 2. Are his traits brought out at certain marked turning points of the plot or are they introduced slowly, the character gradually revealing himself? 3. Is his nature suggested by his physiognomy? 4. What part does costume and physical environment play? 5. How does he appear in relation to the men and women about him? 6. What are his characteristic habits as to pose, gesture, etc.? 7. How does he express himself in speech? Is he reserved, loquacious, careless? What of the quality of his voice, etc.? 8. Does he develop through conscious or unconscious struggle? 9. Is he typical or purely individual? 10. If typical, in what way?

The Author:

1. What of his character, temperament, and philosophy of life? 2. His age when his different works were written? 3. Does his race or nationality reveal itself? 4. Is he an expression of his own time? 5. How far does he show the influence of his own immediate environment? 6. In what do you think is his greatest strength? In description, character drawing, analysis of events, etc.? 7. Has he a sense of humor? Sympathy? Has he sense of spiritual values?

Longfellow's well known description of Agassiz and the methods by which Nature lured him on in the pursuit of truth might be applied to many another scientist who has not only delighted in unravelling Nature's mysteries but has freely made known her wonderful tales to others. This was particularly true of Professor N. S. Shaler of Harvard University, whose little volume, "Man and the Earth," we take up for study this month. Professor Shaler realized that his own love of peering into the future was shared by many persons less gifted than he and in "Man and the Earth" he attempted to point out some of the things that may be expected to happen in future days when we shall

have turned over our earth problems to others. Professor Shaler was born in Newport, Kentucky, in 1841, graduated at the Lawrence Scientific School at Harvard in 1862, served two years in the Union Army, and in 1868 became identified with the Lawrence Scientific School which he served throughout his life, being Dean at the time of his death in 1906. He was the author of many books,—his versatility leading him into various fields, "Kentucky, a Pioneer Commonwealth," "The Nature of Intellectual Property," and others. Of purely scientific works were "A First Book in Geology," an admirable text book for schools, "Features of Coasts and Oceans," "Domesticated Animals," "Sea and Land," "American Highways," "The Story of Our Continent," "Interpretation of Nature," etc. He also wrote upon the economic life of the country, a subject which interested him greatly. He was a man of very broad culture and wide sympathies, a ready writer, and master of a style that at times set forth scientific truths with the charm of a story.



SIDE LIGHTS ON "MAN AND THE EARTH."

In our study of "Man and the Earth" many circles may enjoy following out some of the interesting problems touched upon by Professor Shaler. We shall publish in the Round Table each month certain practical questions for debate or discussion on the several chapters and a number of suggestions for papers on subjects which will repay further investigation. This material has been prepared by a specialist in geology in one of our leading universities who has, as far as possible, selected his reference material from publications accessible to large numbers of CHAUTAUQUAN readers. Persons living in college towns can usually borrow these from the college library and the government publications suggested can be secured by any reader or circle by writing to the congressman of that district. Many of these government publications, though somewhat forbidding externally, contain material of very great interest to the general reader.

DEATH OF MR. CLIFFORD LANIER.

A very great loss has come to Chautauqua in the recent death of Mr. Clifford A. Lanier of Montgomery, Alabama. Mr. Lanier was first known to Chautauquans as one of "The Laniers," the brother poets Sidney and Clifford for whom the C. L. S. C. Class of '98 was named. The motto of the class "The humblest life that lives may be divine," was taken from one of Mr. Clifford Lanier's poems. Not until a few years ago did Mr. Lanier and his family find their way to Chautauqua, but their gentle courtesy and friendliness endeared them to an ever widening circle of friends. Mr. Lanier's talks at the Vesper Hour and his participation in other exercises of the season gave a rare, indefinable quality to every such occasion. He was one of those high minded generous natures which give themselves gladly to the service of others. Throughout his life he devoted himself by critical articles and public lectures to the wider recognition of his brother Sidney's work. His own literary ideals were high, and in the later years of his life although leisure for study came to him, he did not allow it to exclude him from the activities of civic life. His standards of literary composition were exacting and hence only the best of his writings were allowed to be used for publication.



"There is a universal law of growth and achievement. The man who knows himself, understands his own powers and aptitudes, forms purposes in accord with them and pursues these purposes steadily, is the man of success. He who takes no account of his own nature, makes his will the father of his thought, shuts his eyes to unwelcome truths, places himself in false positions, and turns from the good within his reach to strain after the unattainable, is predestined to vexation and failure. Everyone has his place in the world and the wise and fortunate find it."



THE NOBEL PEACE PRIZE FOR 1908.

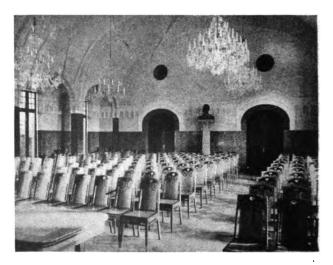
On several occasions the Committee of Award of the Nobel Peace Prize has deemed it wise to bestow the honor upon two recipients. This has been the case in 1908, the prize going to two parliamentarians, K. F. Arnoldson of Sweden, and M. F. Bajer of Sweden. It will be remem-



The Late Clifford A. Lanier.



The Home of the Nobel Institute, Christiania, Norway.



The Home of the Nobel Institute, Christiania, Norway.

bered that when Norway and Sweden separated, the award of four of the Nobel prizes was given to Sweden, Norway assuming the distribution of the Peace fund. Since that time the Peace Hall shown in our illustrations has been built in Christiania. Mr. Arnoldson who was present on December 10th when the prizes were announced, explained the plan of a proposed international demonstration in favor of peace to which he intends to devote his fund.

On December 10th also, in Stockholm, the other Nobel prizes were awarded as follows:

Literature—Prof. Rudolf Eucken of Jena University, who has written much on philosophical subjects.

Physics—Prof. Gabriel Lippman of the University of Paris. Chemistry—Prof. Ernest Rutherford, director of the physical laboratory of the University of Manchester, England.

Medicine—Divided between Dr. Paul Ehrlich of Berlin and

Prof. Elie Metschnikoff of Pasteur Institute, Paris.
Professor Eucken is a German philosopher, now sixty-two
years old, who studied philology, history, and philosophy at Göttingen. He was professor of philosophy at Basle from 1871 to 1874,

and has since held the same chair at Jena.

Dr. Gabriel Lippman has been a professor in the University of Paris since 1883. He was educated in Paris and in Germany, giving especial attention to physics and chemistry. He enunciated the principle of the conservation of electricity, and discovered, in 1891,

a method of photographing in colors.

Professor Rutherford is a native of New Zealand, where he was born in 1871. He was educated at the New Zealand University and Cambridge University. He was professor of physics at McGill University, Montreal, from 1898 until he went to his present post in 1907. He has devoted much attention to radio-activity.

Dr. Metschnikoff has been a professor at the Pasteur Institute

for several years. He is a member of the Paris Academy of Medicine and of the Royal Society of London. His publications include "The Nature of Man" and "Immunity in Infective Diseases."



C. L. S. C. REVIVAL IN CAPE COLONY.

Miss M. E. Landfear, who returned to South Africa last summer from Chautauqua to aid in working up funds for the Huguenot Seminary, writes that she is again at Wellington where she taught for so may years and aroused widespread interest in the work of the C. L. S. C. Although the famous Chautauqua Class of South Africa graduated in 1889, Miss Landfear's presence seems to have kindled latent enthusiasm in many directions. She says:

"About two weeks ago I was asked by the literary society of

Robertson, Cape Colony, to give them a lecture on any literary subject I might choose—or the C. L. S. C.! The president of the society who wrote me is a graduate of the C. L. S. C. and is at the

head of a school of six hundred pupils."

QUESTIONS TO WHICH INTERNATIONAL LAW HAS BEEN APPLIED.

An eminent writer on the Law of the Constitution of England, Mr. Dicey, in discussing the momentous analogous question of whether the term Constitutional Law as that term is used in England is properly employed, speaks of the Professor of International Law as "being a teacher of law which is not law," and says that he is "accustomed to expound those rules of public ethics which are miscalled international law." Professor Dicey points out that the rules which make up constitutional law in England include two sets of principles. The one set of rules he regards as in the strictest sense "laws" since they are rules which are enforced by the courts. The other set of rules, he says, "are not in reality laws at all since they are not enforced by the courts." In the same way it might be said that the rules which make up International Law constitute two sets of rules, one set enforced by the courts and the other which there is no court to enforce. The municipal courts of the United States and of England determine and apply principles of International Law in those cases in which it is necessary to do so in order to adjudicate personal and property rights, but in other cases it does not do so.

It would be quite impossible in this brief space to set forth in any detail an account of the questions to which International Law has been applied. But it may be of some service to the reader to indicate in a very general way some of the matters with which that law is concerned.

International Law defines the rights of States in their pacific relations, and their rights in their hostile relations. It determines the duties of belligerent States towards neutral States, and the duties of neutral States towards belligerent States. It deals with the rights of legation, the right to send and to receive and to dismiss ambassadors and ministers, and with the privileges of such diplomatic representation. It defines the extent to which a belligerent can interfere in the commerce of a neutral, and determines

whether the enemy's property in a neutral vessel is subject to capture. It defines the right of one belligerent to visit and search the ships of a neutral, and it defines what is included in contraband of war and as such liable to seizure. It has to do also with the negotiation and effect of treaties.

To be more specific International Law, for example, forbids a belligerent from carrying on hostilities within neutral territory, and it requires a belligerent to abstain from making on neutral territory direct preparation for acts of hostility. As a further illustration International Law does not recognize the right of the land forces of a belligerent to enter neutral territory.



A TRAVEL TALK ON HOLLAND.

Some of the Circles in the Mississippi Valley will be glad to learn that Miss Georgie L. Hopkins, who has been prominent in club and circle work in Illinois and at various Chautauquas, can be secured for an informal travel talk on Holland, or on life in Paris, both subjects having a close relation to the work of the year. Miss Hopkins has been closely identified with the Lithia Springs Chautauqua for a number of years and spent several weeks at Chautauqua last summer when she rendered very valuable service to the C. L. S. C. in organizing the Class of 1912. She will be glad to meet with circles and discuss plans of work or help them in bringing the C. L. S. C. to the attention of their communities. Her experience and her personal charm make her a very welcome guest in any circle or club which is fortunate enough to secure her. Her terms can be secured by addressing her at Shelbyville, Illinois.

Some thirty-two years ago when Holland was less familiar to tourists than it is today, a very entertaining series of articles entitled "An Artist's Strolls in Holland," by George H. Boughton, appeared in Scribner's Magasine. They were illustrated with views by the author and Mr. E. A. Abbey. Methods of magazine illustration have advanced far since that day, yet these delightful sketches are still well worth looking up for their individuality and for the very entertaining account of personal experiences by Mr. Boughton which accompanied them. Readers who have access to bound volumes of Scribner's Magasine, volumes 66-69, covering the years 1882-5, will enjoy many a quiet laugh over the adventures of the author and the inimitable "Jacob."



SUGGESTIONS FOR STUDY OF "MAN AND THE EARTH." CHAPTER I.

Query: From a broad all-the-world standpoint, what are the effects of migration upon the peoples of the world? Is the world prosperity increased or diminished? Is the grand average standard of life raised or lowered?

Topic: The Effect of Civilization on Population.

References: "Population and Progress," Formightly Review, vol. 86:1001; ibid. 87:215. "Western Civilization and Birth Rate,"

vol. 86:1001; 101a. 07:215.

American Journal of Sociology, vol. 12:607.

The Earth as Modified General References on the Chapter: "The Earth as Modified by Man," by George P. Marsh; "American History and Its Geo-graphic Conditions," by Ellen Churchill Semple (contains a good bibliography). Geographic Influences in American History. Brigham. CHAPTER II.

Query: In the Mississippi Basin much of the coal is taken from the third and fourth veins. This practically destroys the upper veins. Should the mine operators be compelled to mine the upper veins (of very inferior quality) first?

Topic: Peat as Fuel.

References: Electrochemical and Metallurgical Industry. 3:421 (Nov., '05); The Scientific American Supplement, Nov. 18, '05; Engineering News, Sept. 6, '06. General References. Coal: See Engineering Index, under Mining and Metallurgy.

Water Power: Ibid. under Electrical Engineering, Generating

Stations, Hydro-electric.

Wind Power: Review of Reviews, 29:183.
Tidal Power: Scientific American Supplement, 60:24832.

CHAPTER III.

When the new construction work has caught up with the demands of the population will there be a decrease in the demand for material, or will the demand for maintenance be equal to the present demand for new construction? Will the new construction work catch up with the demands of the population at any time?

Topic: Low-Grade Ores as the Future Source of Metals.

References on Low-Grade Copper Ores: Mining and Scientific Press (Ely, Nevada), July, '05; Mining Porphyry Ore of Bingham, Engineering and Mining Journal, Sept. 14, '07. See also U. S. Geological Survey publications, contributions to Economic Geology, '05, '06, '07. Monograph on Bingham, Utah, copper deposits (these may be obtained from your Congressman).

General References: See Engineering Index, Mining and Metal-

lurgy.

CHAPTER IV.

Query: How will the development of irrigation in the West affect conditions in the Mississippi Valley? Consider the shift of population, the decrease in the fertility of land due to continued tillage, the size of farms, etc. How will the population become adjusted?

Topic: Dry Farming. References: Independent, 62:885, Apr. 18, 07; Scientific Amer-

ican, 99:120, August 22, '08; Outlook, 85:342, Feb. 16, '07.

References on Irrigation: Review of Reviews, N. Y.. 29:305;
National Magazine, 15:642; ibid., 15:718; The Chautauquan,
35:586; Forum, 33:363; World's Work, 4:2491.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We study the Word and the Works of God." "Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst."
"Never be Discouraged."

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR MARCH.

FIRST WEEK. FEBRUARY 25-MARCH 4.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "The Friendship of Nations," Chapter VI.

In the Required Books: "Studies in European Literature," Chapter VII. Alexandre Dumas and "The Three Musketeers."

"Man and the Earth," Chapter I. Earth and Man.

SECOND WEEK. MARCH 4-II.

In the Required Books: "Studies in European Literature," Chapter VIII. Balzac's "Eugénie Grandet," Chapter IX. George Sand. "Man and the Earth," Chapter II. "The Future of

Power."

THIRD WEEK. MARCH 11-18.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: "A Reading Journey in Holland," Chapter VI. Dutch Farming, Dutch Pottery, etc.

In the Required Books: "Studies in European Literature," Chapter X. Emile Zola: Le Rêve. "Man and the Earth," Chapter III, The Exhaustion of Metals.

FOURTH WEEK. MARCH 18-25.
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: Dutch Art and Artists, Chapter VI. The

Landscape and Marine Painters.

In the Required Books: "Studies in European Literature," Chapter XI. Rostand: "Cyrano de Bergerac." "Man and the Earth," Chapter IV. The Unknown Lands.

FIFTH WEEK. MARCH 25-APRIL I. In the Required Books: "Studies in European Literature," Chapter XII. Lessing's "Nathan the Wise," Chapter XIII. Schiller's "Wilhelm Tell." "Man and the Earth," Chapter V. Land from the Waters.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

FIRST WEEK. FEBRUARY 25-MARCH 4.

Review and Discussion of article on Friendship of Nations.

Reading: Selections from "By the Christmas Fire," S. M. Crothers part of the chapter on "The Bayonet Poker."
Study of "The Three Musketeers." (See suggestions in Round

Table.)

Roll Call: Answered by a bit of striking description from the novel. Reports and Discussions on "Man and the Earth," Chapter I. (See suggestions in Round Table.)

SECOND WEEK. MARCH 4-11.

Study of Balzac's Eugénie Grandet on plan suggested in Round Table.

Roll Call: Current Events or items of interest relating to "The Future of Power" from current scientific news.

Reports and Discussion on "Man and the Earth," Chapter II. (See

Round Table.)
Study of George Sand. (See Suggestions in Round Table.)

Paper: Incidents in the life of George Sand. (See bibliography and much interesting material in the "Warner Library of the "World's Best Literature.")

THIRD WEEK. MARCH 11-18.

Paper with Map Study: The Reclamation of the Zuyder Zee. (See World 10-Day, 8:283-8. March, '05, Review of Reviews, 30:318-22, Sept., '04, also McClure's Magazine, 21:648-58, Oct., 1903.) Reading: Selections from "Well Worn Roads in Spain and Holland," F. Hopkinson Smith; also from *Charities*, 20:8, April 4, '08. "Insurance for the Unemployed." (Circles which have access to libraries will find other suggestions under Travel Club Programs.)

Paper: Vondel the Dutch Shakespeare. (See "Warner Library of the World's Best Literature," "Studies in the Literature of Northern Europe," E. Gosse.)

Reading: Selection from article in March CHAUTAUQUAN on Milton and Vondel.

Study of Zola's "Le Rêve." (See Round Table.) Reports and Discussion on "Man and the Earth," Chapter III. (See Round Table.)

FOURTH WEEK. MARCH 18-25. Roll Call: Quotations from "Cyrano de Bergerac."

Presentation of one or more scenes in dialogue from the play. Cheap editions of the play can easily be secured and the leader of this study might select certain scenes which illustrate particularly well the qualities which it seems best to bring out. (The Chautauqua Press, Chautauqua, New York, can furnish copies.)

Reports and Discussion of Chapter VI in "Dutch Art and Artists."

(See bibliography.)

FIFTH WEEK. MARCH 25-APRIL I.

Review Questions. Roll Call: Quotations from Lessing's "Nathan the Wise." (The "Warner Library of the World's Best Literature" contains many

selections in addition to those in our book.)
Study of Schiller's "Will'am Tell." (See suggestions in the Round

Table.) Reports and Discussion on "Man and the Earth," Chapter IV.

THE TRAVEL CLUB.

Special programs for Graduate Circles and Clubs specializing upon the two Dutch Series. (A copy of Baedeker's "Belgium and Holland" is quite indispensable for such clubs.)

FIRST WEEK.

Reading of Selections: Experiences of a Dutch Kermis. (See chapter on "Alkmaar" in Amicis and in "Sketching Rambles in Holland" by Boughton, chapter X.)

Oral Reports: The South African Museum at Dordrecht (see Baedeker); Nicholas Beets (see "Dutch Life in Town and Country").

"The North Holland Boer" by Nicholas Beets. (See Reading: "Holland and the Hollanders," pp. 18-24.)

Review and Discussion of pictures by Hobbema. (See bibliography following Mr. Zug's article.)

SECOND WEEK.

Paper with Map Study: The Reclamation of the Zuyder Zee. (See World To-Day, 8:283-8, March, '05, and Review of Reviews, 30:318-22, Sept., '04.)

Reading: Selections from "Reclaiming an Ocean Bed," McClure's

Magasine, 21:648-58, October, 1903.)
Book Review: "The Burgomaster's Wife," George Ebers; or "The Chaperon" by C. N. and A. M. Williamson. Review and Discussion of pictures by Ruisdael. (See bibliography

and Masters in Art.)

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THIRD WEEK.

Paper: The Charity Colonies. (See chapter on Groningen and the North in "Holland and the Hollanders," Meldrum, also North American Review, 168:251, Feb., 1899, "How Holland Helps the Helpless.")

Reading: Selections from article entitled "Insurance for the Un-

employed" in Charities, 20:8, April 4, '08.

Papers: The Veenhuizen penal colonists; the Fen peat colonies.

(See above chapter in "Holland and the Hollanders.")

Review and Discussion of the remaining artists considered in Mr. Zug's current article. (See bibliography.)

FOURTH WEEK.

Paper: Thomas a Kempis. (See encyclopedias, also "Warner

Library of the World's Best Literature.")
Readings: Selections relating to Loo, Apeldoorn and Zutphen.
(See "Holland Described by Great Writers," and other available books.)

Paper: Vondel, the Dutch Shakespeare. (See article in "Warner Library of the World's Best Literature," and "Studies in the Literature of Northern Europe," by E. Gosse.)

Roll Call: Quotations from Vondel's "Lucifer."

Reading: Selection from article in March Chautauquan, "Milton

and Vondel."

REVIEW AND SEARCH QUESTIONS ON MARCH READ-INGS.

THE PRIENDSHIP OF NATIONS. CHAPTER VIL. WHAT IS INTERNATIONAL LAW?

1. Why is a knowledge of International Law particularly important for American citizens? 2. What does the term International Law mean? 3. How can the use of the word law in this connection be defended? 4. By whom is International Law made? 5. To whom is it applicable? 6. How is it applied? 7. By whom is it applied? 8. Who invented the term International Law? 9. What is the final source of law? 10. Why is the Peace of Westphalia important in the history of International Law? 11. How is International Law becoming of greater and greater importance in world politics?

CHAPTER VIII. THE SANCTION OF INTERNATIONAL LAW.

 What are the apparent differences between municipal and International Law?
 Wherein are they fundamentally alike?
 3. How is international public opinion made manifest? 4. What happens when a nation defies the opinion of its neighbors? 5. How may International Law be brought to a higher and more effective standing than it now occupies?

A READING JOURNEY IN THE HOLLOW-LAND. CHAPTER VI.

1. For what is Alkmaar celebrated? 2. What was the siege of Alkmaar? 3. What was the relative strength of the contending forces? 4. What is the Kermis? 5. Why is it now rarely permitted? 6. Who are some of the famous men who have lived in Hoorn. 7. What is the legend concerning Stavoren? 8. What is its chief industry? 10. What was the origin of the golden cap worn by the women of Friesland? 11. What are the characteristics of the Dutch Boer? 12. Why is the protection of the dykes of such vital importance?

DUTCH ART AND ARTISTS, CHAPTER VI. LANDSCAPE AND MARINE PAINT-

I. How does the landscape rainting of the Dutch school differ from that of the early Italian school in purpose and in method? 2. When was Ruisdael born? 3. What do we know of his life?

4. How many pictures has he left us? 5. Wherein is his greatness? 6. What are his favorite themes? 7. When did Hobbema live? 8. What do we know of him? 9. What were his usual themes? 10. What was his greatest quality as a painter? 11. What later painters have learned much of him? 12. How did the Dutch landscape artists introduce figures into their scenes? Who was Adriaen van de Velde? 14. In what is he chiefly successful? 15. Why did the Dutch painters select dark days for their pictures? 16. What can we say of the original tints employed? 17. In what did the Dutch marine painters succeed? In what, fail? Who were some of them?

SEARCH QUESTIONS.

 Can you suggest any war of the last hundred years which would have been prevented had there existed an enlightened public opinion in the warring nations? 2. Cite some recent instances of international relations which show the growth of the peace spirit.

1. What are some of the more recent triumphs of international unity of purpose? 2. What are some of the recent breaches of international ethics which have excited protest?

- 1. When did the Battle of Hoorn occur? 2. What were the contending forces? 3. When was Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania) discovered? 4. To whom does it now belong? 5. When did the Dutch colonize South Africa? 6. What was the result of the English Boer war upon the political status of the Dutch in the Transvaal?
- 1. Who was Benozzo Gozzoli? 2. Who was Botticelli? 3. When did the following artists live: Gainsborough, Corot, Rousseau? 3. Of what school and time were Fra Angelico, Perugino, and Fra Lippo Lippi? 4. What great American marine painter is still living and working?



ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON FEBRUARY READINGS.

I. Octavius and Mark Antony representing the aristocracy of Rome, defeated in two battles. Brutus and Cassius, leaders of the republicans, both of them perished. This with other events, paved the way for the Empire. 2. A Roman legendary hero, born about 519 B. C. He is remembered chiefly for his military exploits. Called from his farm in 458 by the Senate to assume the dictatorship of the army. He conquered the Aequians, who had held the army captive, and in sixteen days finished his work and laid down his dictatorship. At the age of eighty he was again appointed dictator, successfully defeating the traitor Spurius Melius. 3. Caligula was the adopted son of Tiberius, whose death was in some measure attributed to him. He began his rule at twenty-five years of age and during his four years became cruel and licentious to the verge of madness. Claudius was grandson of Tiberius, feeble both in mind and body. Made Emperor by the pretorian guards. His amiable disposition was corrupted by his infamous wife and corrupt favorites. 4. Edward Gibbon. He had a varied experience of life. In his youth he spent a few months at Oxford followed by study under a private tutor at Lausanne, Switzerland. Served in the militia for seven years, was elected to parliament, and later retired to Lausanne, where he lived and wrote for the remainder of his life. 5. Cinna: A Roman general and statesman. Consul with Marius in 86 B. C. leader of the popular party against Sulla. Marius: A distinguished Roman general, who served in many campaigns in various parts of the Empire and held many civic positions. His rivalry with Sulla caused the first civil war in 88 B. C. He and Cinna captured Rome in 87 and proscribed the aristocrats. Sulla: An able Roman general. His rivalry with Marius led to the first civil war in Rome. He expelled the Marians and issued a sweeping proscription—the first of its kind in Roman history—a veritable reign of terror. Persons listed by him might be killed with impunity and their property confiscated and sold by public auction. Rewards were offered and ho man's life was safe. 6. Three hundred years. 7. A collection of paintings by the gifted but eccentric painter Anton Joseph Wiertz. He painted some classic scenes, a Homeric battle, Polyphemus devouring the companions of Ulysses, etc. Others with moral purpose, namely a picture called Hunger, Madness, and Crime (to press the claims of orphanages), vision of a beheaded man (to protest against capital punishment), Napoleon in Hell (to illustrate the horrors of war), etc. The Museum which was formerly his country residence and studio, was purchased by the government after his death.

1. Adrian, or Hadrian VI. Pope from 1522-3. He was Vice Chancellor of the University of Louvain and tutor of Archduke Charles, later Charles V. He was Bishop of Tortosa and Grand Inquisitor of Aragon; Cardinal later for a time, regent of Spain. As pope he corrected some of the external abuses of the church, but failed to check the reformation. 2. The War of the Spanish Succession, between France on one side and Great Britain, Holland, Prussia, Savoy, and Portugal on the other, and acceded to by Spain. Philip V. (Bourbon) was confirmed as king of Spain but the crowns of France and Spain were never to be united. France recognized the Protestant succession in England. Holland was secured and the Spanish Netherlands ceded to Austria. 3. From the Latin bulla, a seal. 4. An Eastern romance by Beckford written in French and published in 1787. So called from the name of the hero. An English translation was published anonymously three years earlier and has superseded the original. 5. A twelfth night custom when the office of Bean King or Master of Ceremonies was filled by the one who found a bean in his part of the twelfth night cake. 6. The Family Concert, at the Art Institute, Chicago; Dutch Kermess, The Old Rat Comes to the Trap at Last, Metropolitan Museum; Family Scene, a Landscape and Figures, Family Fete, New

York Historial Society. 7. Jacob Cats.



NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES.

"I must confess," said one of the Round Table delegates, "that about this time of year I feel the need of a mental change. I'm sometimes afraid that it's an evidence of fickle mindedness. I en-

joyed our historical book in the fall immensely, but now I seem to be tired of the history and am quite eager to get into our studies in literature and science." "Your experience is a good deal like mine," responded a New Yorker, "and I recently found at least a partial answer to my perplexity in a very suggestive new book by President King called 'The Seeming Unreality of the Spiritual Life.' Let me quote these few lines:

"'We are to expect from both physical and psychical conditions changing vital feelings, alternation of moods, altering power of attention and some consequent ebb and flow in conviction and in the sense of reality. We need not regard this as wholly a weakness; it is in part, at least, an evidence of the breadth of our nature.'"

"This is perhaps," said Pendragon, "one of the reasons why our Chautauqua Circle makes such a wide appeal. It provides for this fluctuation in our mental attitude, keeping us at the same time in one general line of study so that we may turn from history to literature or to art, as the case may be, and find that each tells a different aspect of the one story. We have all had the experience of finding a given book deadly dull when we are tired but when our minds are fresh or are stimulated by the influence of others we are astonished to see how much the book interests us. Don't be too exacting with yourselves. Make note of the thoughts that you want to remember and grow in your own natural way. Now we must hear from a new Circle at Monroe, Louisiana. They have all the ardor of youth!"

"The Monroe C. L. S. C. is a new Circle," replied the delegate. "We have some fourteen or fifteen members. Our membership embraces school teachers, bookkeepers, bankers, business men, and The 'Foundations of Modern Europe' has roused considerable interest among the students. The author has left the beaten paths and while many of our members do not agree with the opinions expressed, they are unanimous in the verdict that he is an original thinker and has made us think of things we never had thought of before. Ruskin tells us that that should be the goal of the author, and the author who merely makes us say, "That is just what I think," is a rank failure. A great diversity of opinion was expressed regarding the character of Napoleon. Most of us have been taught to regard Napoleon as an ambitious monster without a single redeeming quality. Since the study of this our first book, even the most sincere haters of Napoleon have modified their views regarding the man, while others are ardent admirers of the man's genius and his personal qualities, and consider him so far superior to the petty contemporary sovereigns that there can be no comparison. Some of our members expressed the well known fact, that the story of Napoleon, his rule, his power, his fall and degradation, is simply another picture of the fickleness of public favor. Our

Circle was unanimous in its expression of contempt for the reactionary measures following the downfall of Napoleon. We got an insight into the character of the rank and file of the Italian people as well as that of Cavour and Gambetta. Our conclusion regarding the characters who stand out so prominently during these various periods is, that any of these great characters are simply accentuated pictures of the people and conditions of the times in which they lived. The current events d'scussed have included the Presidential election, the Balkan question, and the 'calling down' of the German Emperor, much surprise being expressed over the emphatic manner in which the German people dared to express their disapproval. In the light of such events we have concluded that monarchy and monarchs are not such terribly irrepressible, unapproachable institutions after all. The above are only a few of the things we have considered. We are hampered somewhat in the fact that our little town 'suffers' from an over-supply of clubs, study sections, and organizations innumerable."



"We are an illustration," said the Dardanelle, Arkansas, delegate, "of a club which is no longer one of the 'over-supply' referred to by the Monroe delegate. We've been a Shakespeare Club for six years and our training as a club has given us twelve hard working members who have never enjoyed three months' work more than since we entered the charmed Circle of Chautauqua. The first chapter of the first book called for the most lively discussion and the severest criticisms, some of us thinking the American troops were not given proper credit in the author's treatment of the Revolutionary War. We got more real pleasure from the study of the chapters on Napoleon than from any others, but you know that is always a fascinating subject. The chapters on 'The Hollow-Land' were real eye-openers to some of us who had never given the subject much study or thought. One member who attended the St. Louis Exposition, is wishing she could have had Mr. Zug's Dutch Art studies before she went. We shall certainly make use of them the first time another World's Fair comes our way!"

"The Butler Circle of Missouri," remarked the next speaker, "is five years old. We have eighteen members and this year's work is considered the best yet. We feel sometimes that our lack of the artistic temperament keeps us from getting all we might from the Dutch Art and Artists, yet we give it due care in study and some of our members find it the most interesting subject in the course. Dr. Reich has presented an intricate and usually dull subject in a most interesting manner. His masterful grasp of historical data, his unprejudiced opinions, and his keen insight into the sequence of events have excited the admiration and favorable comment of

our members. The study of Napoleon has called forth discussions, and we have gained many new thoughts concerning this great world-character. The problems of how to interest more men in the Chautauqua work and how to establish and maintain a library have been discussed in the Circle without finding a solution."

"These are both live questions," commented Pendragon, "and the fact that large numbers of C. L. S. C. Circles have successfully organized and maintained public libraries may be emphasized for your encouragement. It is true also that in spite of the natural disposition in many cases to make the Chautauqua Circle purely a woman's club, the value of a mixed circle has outweighed all other considerations and the majority of the circles represent both men and women."

"I may say in passing," added the delegate of the Washington Circle of Brooklyn, New York, "that though I don't know how much we can claim in the way of the 'artistic temperament' we are finding great interest in the Dutch Art Studies. We have specialized upon them and are collecting pictures from various sources. We shall have quite an album for reference by the end of the year."

"We are a group of teachers, nine of us," reported a member from Marion, Alabama. "We feel as if the chief function of the first book of the course had been to take the wind out of our sails! but we learned some new and interesting facts. We are enjoying 'Seen in Germany' thoroughly and the magazine articles with the fine illustrations appeal to us greatly."

"Speaking of teachers," said a delegate from Tennessee, "I should like to mention that the members of the Bristol Teachers' Association have recently formed two flourishing Circles, one in Bristol, Virginia, and the other in Bristol, Tennessee. You shall hear more from us later."



"The Peace and War questions have stirred our fifteen members quite vigorously," reported the president of the Vincent Circle of Indianapolis. "Of course we are all enthusiastic advocates of peace but Professor Reich's book gave us some rather new points of view. The possibility that war might at times be preferable to peace was pressed upon us so ardently in one of our discussions that, shall I tell it?—a member confessed that being pugilistically inclined, she had about decided to keep on cherishing the fighting spirit! We found 'Foundations of Modern Europe' so interesting that we were sorry to come to the end."

"You will see from the following list of our occupations," said the delegate from Antwerp, New York, "that we are likely to have a good deal of variety in our points of view. Our music teacher, for instance, has traveled abroad and gives us many interesting personal recollections, business men and teachers, housekeepers, clerks, and one dressmaker, all show various aptitudes. We've kept a good many of the old school traditions in our Circle with spelling and pronunciation matches, quizzes with books closed, etc., map reviews, written character studies, and an illuminating book review of 'Emile.' Visitors now and then drop in on us from other towns, on which occasions we try not to make our 'serious' methods seem discouraging for they are wonderfully stimulating to us! We have found great interest and pleasure in the study of the unusual words in 'Foundations of Modern Europe.'"



"As the Avon, New York, C. L. S. C. has not been represented at the Round Table for some time, I should like to report for 'The Invincibles,' as we are known locally," said the delegate. "We anticipated the ringing of the Bryant bell and had our ear to the earth,' its echo finding us fully organized. Seven of our members of last year's Circle were at Chautauqua Assembly last summer and their glowing accounts have increased the interest in Chautaugua so that the membership of our Circle has grown from eighteen to twenty-eight. We meet in the homes of members the second and fourth Monday evening of each month. A committee is appointed to arrange a program for each meeting, which is confined for the most part to the subjects covered by the required readings. An interesting, and we think valuable, feature of our system is the friendly competition for points during the season (the circle being equally divided for the purpose) as it insures regular and prompt attendance, reading done up to date of each meeting and a literary treat in quotations at roll call. A rule in connection therewith which provides that any member who refuses to do any regular work assigned shall lose two points has worked admirably. Points are made by attendance, being present at roll call, responding withquotation from the designated author, and having reading done to date: each member being able to make four points at each meeting.

"The interest in our meetings is such that it takes more than stormy nights or muddy roads to keep members away. You may laugh at my allusion to muddy roads, but I am sure you will not when I tell you that we have three farmers and their wives in our circle, one of whom has to drive six miles to meetings.

"We have been intensely interested in 'Foundations of Modern Europe,' but are not fully in accord with the views of the author. At a recent meeting four of our members debated the question, 'Resolved, that the influence of Napoleon I is beneficial to the world,' in which the author of the above mentioned work was severely criticised for his defence of the character and acts of Napoleon and leading Frenchmen of his day.

"Our programs are varied, but follow quite closely the subjects treated in the required reading. A critic reports at the close of each meeting on the deportment, etymology, superfluous words, etc., of the members. A little time is given each meeting to the discussion of current events in Europe, a field that has been prolific with events of interest to the student of history this winter. As an illustration of the range of subjects covered at our meetings I give herewith the program for December 14th: Miss C. gave a paper on 'The Unity of Italy: Mr. G. briefly reviewed the history of the world peace movement; Miss C. led the discussion of the effects of the reaction of the war spirit in Europe, assisted by Rev. Mr. M. on 'The Benefits.' and Miss M. on 'The Effect on Music, Literature and Art,' which was followed by a general discussion; Miss H. gave a paper on 'The French Revolutions of 1830 and 1848, and President P. gave a synopsis of a lecture delivered by Mr. Horace Fletcher before the Seventh District Dental Association at Rochester on 'Scientific Nutrition.'

"We have invited a member of the faculty of a Rochester institution of learning to address us at an early meeting on 'Conservation of Our National Resources—Human Life,' so we are widening our interests in many ways."

"Our study of 'Man and the Earth," said Pendragon, promises to touch many new fields well worth exploring. I note in closing, this report from Vineland, New Jersey, which refers to the Circle's study of conditions relating to the peat industry in this country. Many of you may be able to bring to the Round Table reports of local geological conditions unfamiliar to the rest of us. Don't forget it!



REVIEW QUESTIONS ON MAN AND THE EARTH.

CHAPTER I. EARTH AND MAN.

1. Show how as man becomes more civilized his use of iron increases. 2. To what extent is this true of other metals? 3. Show how substances unknown to the ancients have become most important in our time. 4. In what different ways is modern man taxing the resources of the earth? 5. How is this illustrated by the soils in certain countries? 6. Why is it a battle "with one of the inevitables?" 7. Why is man likely to remain upon the earth for a long time? 8. What possible increase in population may be anticipated? 9. Show how the different continents may or may not support a much larger population. 10. How are we to maintain the fertility of the soil necessary to the support of a great population?

CHAPTER II. THE FUTURE OF POWER.

I. What economic feature of our time most clearly separates our culture from that of the ancients? 2. What are the different kinds of solar energy available for man? 3. What possibilities

can we forsee in the use of wind? 4. How is the future of water power likely to bring about great changes? 5. What advantages will be found in the rivers in man's future quest for power? 6. Why is the tide likely to become important as a source of energy? 7. Why cannot the inner heat of the earth be utilized by man? 8. What seems likely to be the future of the forests? 9. What relation has peat to the future problem of power? 10. How and in what forms are the various compounds of carbon stored in the earth? 11. Why are these compounds of carbon not to be relied upon indefinitely? 12. What is true as to the amount and distribution of petroleum? 13. What future value will the beds of shale have?

CHAPTER III. THE EXHAUSTION OF METALS.

I. How did the ingenuity of man's ancestors compare with that of the birds and insects? 2. How would the exhaustion of metals affect man's needs for domestic and transportation purposes? 3. What are the most important of our metals and why? 4. Give a brief account of the iron fields of the United States. 5. Why is the world's supply of iron not likely to be increased from the resources of Australia, Africa, and South America? 6. What is the general outlook for the iron supply? 7. What is likely to be the case with copper, and why? 8. In what respects does aluminum seem to offer an admirable substitute for these metals? 9. What difficulties stand in the way of its use? 10. What has been the effect of the increased production of gold? 11. Why are lead and tin not likely to hold their own in the future? 13. Why are mercury and platinum of great service to civilization? 14. What is likely to be the future of sulphur? 15. Why may we be hopeful regarding nitrates in spite of their lack in the earth? 16. What of the question of the transmutation of metals?

CHAPTER IV. THE UNWON LANDS.

I. What proportion of the present uncultivated land of the earth has been reclaimed by engineering processes? 2. Why do the arid wastes seem geologically "temporary?" 3. Why are desert soils often unfit for tillage when first irrigated? 4. Why do they require more water than soils supplied by rainfall? 5. Why are these soils more likely to be permanently fertile? 6. What parts of the world are most favorable to irrigation and why? 7. How is the subject of irrigation related to race development? 8. Compare Africa and Australia with respect to possible irrigation. 9. Compare the two Americas. 10. What are the great valleys in the United States which lend themselves to irrigation? 11. Show how these compare in importance and why. 12. How great will be the food bearing capacity of these soils in the future? 13. By what other means will the food supply be still further increased? 14. What gains to the earth and man will ultimately result from extensive irrigation?

CHAPTER V. LAND FROM THE WATERS.

1. From what natural causes is much land too wet for agricultural purposes? 2. Of how large a proportion of the earth's surface is this true? 3. What attempts have been made in Europe to reclaim this land? 4. Show how great are the possibilities of winning land along the sea shore. 5. How may land be won from the large rivers? 6. How are peat morasses formed? 7. What

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are climbing bogs? 8. To what countries are they limited and why? 9. To what extent may land be won from drainable lakes?

CHAPTER VI. THE PROBLEM OF THE NILE.

- I. How did the situation of the Nile Valley protect its population from invasions? 2. Describe the characteristics of this great river. 3. Why did the people of this region become agriculturists? 4. What ancient conditions still exist? 5. Why is British rule in Egypt likely to have a free hand? 6. Describe in general the engineering works so far undertaken. 7. Show how the rise of the Nile is affected by different kinds of currents. 8. How greatly could the cultivable regions of Egypt be extended? 9. Show how effectively the Nile water could be stored at various points. 10. How far would storage be possible in the eastern tributaries? 11. What possibilities for power does the river suggest? 12. Why is this kind of power especially needed in Egypt? 13. How large a population will the country in future be able to sustain? 14. What is the nature of the Egyptians? 15. How are they adapted to British rule?
 - CHAPTER VII. THE MAINTENANCE OF THE SOIL.
- 1. How is the soil coating formed? 2. Why is it important that this soil should be allowed to move seaward in some measure? 3. What destructive agencies affect the soil as soon as it is subjected to tillage? 4. Show how in America we have been especially prodigal in our waste of the soil. 5. What should be the first step in the effort to check the waste of soil? 6. How modern is the practice of enriching the soil with mineral fertilizers? 7. Describe the progress from the use of guano to rock fertilization. 8. How did the rocks accumulate these fertilizing elements? 9. What concentrated phosphates are at present available and where? 10. What will be available when these are exhausted? 11. What does this indicate as to the obligations of governments toward the soil?
- CHAPTER VIII. THE RESOURCES OF THE SEA.

 I. How is the ocean constantly reinforced with inorganic matter and how much does it receive? 2. How does the ocean vegetation compare with that of the land? 3. How abundant is the animal life of the sea? 4. How far do we at present make use of this life for food? 5. How may this food supply be increased? 6. Show how this has been done and how it may be further extended. 7. How may the study of sea life be conducted advantageously by our government? 8. Why is it possible that the seal industry may be largely developed? 9. How may the breeding of sea birds help to supply the needs of man?

CHAPTER IX. THE CHANGES TO COME IN THE HUMAN PERIOD.

I. How do our human measurements of time compare with those which relate to geologic changes? 2. For how many years is it possible that the human body has kept its general shape? 3. How far is this fixity of structure been noted in other organic series? 4. What interesting fact is illustrated by the crayfish? 5. In what respect are we to look for the greatest changes in the nature of man? 6. What great differences already exist among men and why are we slow to recognize them? 7. What general conditions indicates that the man of the future will be a "world power?" 8. Illustrate this by our growing attitude toward disease? 9. How does the earth compare with some other planets in "youthfulness?" 10. What great changes in climate has the human race already experienced? 11. What other changes does it seem likely

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will occur? 12. Why does it seem probable that the continents will be enlarged? 13? What is to be expected from the volcanoes of the future and why?

CHAPTER X. THE BEAUTY OF THE EARTH.

I. How is it evident that the sense of beauty exists in the lower animals? 2. What is true of the esthetic instinct in the mammalia below man? 3. How do the earliest primitive men show this same lack? 4. What strange fact in this connection is noted as man develops? 5. Show how slowly and yet steadily man's sense of the beauty of landscape has developed. 6. What practical steps have been taken in many directions to preserve this beauty? 7. How may we feel assured that the possibilities of beauty in the earth will not suffer at the hands of the future man?

CHAPTER XI. THE FUTURE OF NATURE UPON THE EARTH.

I. How numerous are the organic species of plants and animals upon the earth? 2. What is the nature of their relation to each other? 3. How is this illustrated in the case of weeds? 4. What is likely to be the future of the back-boned animal world? 5. What are the great dangers from the insect world? 6. Why is man of this age morally bound to preserve specimens of forms likely to become extinct? 7. What species among the insects are most important to the psychologist? 8. Illustrate the danger of extinction of valuable birds. 9. Which of the mammals seem liable to be extinguished? 10. What peculiar importance has the elephant? 11. What reasons demand our preservation of many of the higher forms of animal life?

I. What length of life do scientists give to the sun and why?

2. What is the general result of the earth's loss of heat?

3. How do the tides affect the movement of the earth?

4. How many years does it seem probable, are still ahead of our earth?

5. What question has been raised as to the supply of oxygen and carbon?

6. How is the loss of the latter made good?

7. What seems probably true of oxygen?

8. What questions as to the heat and cold of space have been discussed by geologists?

9. How is the fear of comets practically disposed of?

10. Discuss the dangers from meteorites.

11. What is the probable situation regarding planetoids and their kind?

12. What may we conjecture as to the character of the future men of our earth?



Esperanto News

The layman is often puzzled to know why some testimony is acceptable to the court while other is rejected and also why one item will appear almost simultaneously in all the newspapers of the United States to the exclusion of others. The first case is regulated by the law of evidence, the second by what the United Press considers as "news."

The introduction of Esperanto into the United States, the taking up of Esperanto by institutions of learning, the holding of conventions, the election of national officers, etc., were "news" at the time of their occurrence, and as such were chronicled by the United Press. But now, Esperanto has become an established fact, therefore, its continued existence, to steady growth as proved by the fact that one or two hundred new members are joining the Esperanto Association of North America every month (271 last month), not taking into account the greater number who become interested without taking the trouble to join the association, etc., in short all that pertains to its regular existence is taken as a matter of course, and this ceases to be "news."

On the other hand, the death of Esperanto would be "news" and when five men, for reasons best known to themselves, decided by a vote of three to two to abandon Esperanto for something else, just as some people will take up Postum in place of coffee, and then sent word to the United Press that Esperanto was dead because the whole of New York had repudiated it, the press published the announcement broadcast, because it would have been "news," if true.

Not only is the Esperanto Association of North America progressing in a very satisfactory manner but the fairness and broadness of its constitution is attracting the attention of Esperantists all over the world and even now federations similar to our State Associations are forming all over Europe so that every country will soon have a regular Esperanto organization which will greatly facilitate international agreements.

PROGRAM SECOND ESPERANTO CONGRESS.

Chautauqua, N. Y., August 9 to August 14, 1909.

SATURDAY, AUGUST 7.

Opening of reception headquarters. Examination for diplomas.

SUNDAY, AUGUST 8.

Esperanto Service, 3 p. m. Higgins Hall.

MONDAY, AUGUST 9.

Opening of Congress, Auditorium, 11 a. m. Raising of Esperanto Flag, College Hill, 2 p. m. Council meeting, E. A. of N. A., College, 4 p. m. Esperanto Concert, Auditorium, 8 p. m.

TUESDAY, AUGUST 10.

Divisional meeting E. A. of N. A., 9 a. m. Main Address, Auditorium, 2 p. m. Amateur theatricals, Higgins Hall, 8 p. m.

WEDNESDAY, AUGUST II.

Caucus of Esperantists, Higgins Hall, 2 p. m. Esperanto Play (professionals), Celoron Theater, 8 p. m.

THURSDAY, AUGUST 12.

Election of New Council and Officers, Higgins Hall, 2 p. m. Dance, Lakewood Club, 8 p. m.

FRIDAY, AUGUST 13.

Business meeting, Closing of Congress, Higgins Hall, 2 p. m. Informal reception, Higgins Hall, 8 p. m.

SATURDAY, AUGUST 14.

Excursion to Niagara Falls, 7 a. m.

ESPERANTO.

La infano reiras al la komodo, li haltas antaŭ la spegulo,

Lia kombilo kaj lia harbroso kuŝas sur la his comb and brush lie upon the bureau. komodo.

li prenas la kombilon,

li kombas sian hararon antaŭen, posten he combs his hair in front, behind and kaj flanken,

li brosas ĝin per la harbroso,

li dislimas la hararon, li glatigas la hararon,

komodon.

he stops in front of the mirror,

The child goes back to his bureau,

he takes his comb,

on the side, he brushes it with the hair brush,

he parts his hair,

he smooths his hair,

li metas la kombilon kaj la broson sur la he puts the comb and the brush upon the bureau.

Li iras al sia kamero, li prenas paron da ŝouj el la kamero, li sidiĝas sur seĝon, li metas la ŝuojn planken,

li senvestas la pantoflojn, li piedvestas la ŝuojn.

Li leviĝas, li metas la piedon sur la seĝon,

li prenas la lacojn, li tiras la laĉojn, li lacas unu ŝuon kaj poste la alian, li portas la pantoflojn en la kaneron.

Lia veŝto dependas de hoko en la kam- His vest hangs from a hook in his

li decrocas la veston,

dekstra armtruo,

la maldekstra armtruo,

li kunigas la ekstremaĵojn de sia vesto.

He goes to his closet,

he takes a pair of shoes from his closet, he sits down on a chair, he puts his shoes on the floor. he takes off his slippers he puts on his shoes.

He rises, he puts his foot on a chair. he takes the laces,

he pulls the shoestrings, he laces one shoe and then the other, he carries his slippers into his closet.

he takes down his vest,

li brosas gin per balaileto, he brushes it with the whiskbroom, li pasigas la dekstran brakon trans la he passes the right arm through the

right armhole, li pasigas la maldekstran brakon trans he passes the left arm through the left armhole.

he joins the sides of his vest.

Por fari tion:

li prenas la unuan butonon,

li pasigas la unuan butonon trans la unua he passes the first button through the

li ellasas la unuan butonon,

li butonumas la duan sammaniere,

li butonumas la trian, li butonumas sian veston de la supro he buttons his vest from top to bottom,

ĝis la malsupro,

Lia vesto ankaŭ dependas de hoko en la His coat also hangs from a hook in his kamero,

li decrocas la veston, li brosas ĝin, kaj li surmetas ĝin.

To do this:

he takes the first button,

first buttonhole,

he lets go the first button,

he buttons the second like the first,

he buttons the third,

kaj la vesto kovras la supron de lia and the vest covers the top of his body.

closet,

he takes down the coat, he brushes it, and he puts it on.

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Li de nove alproksimigas sin al la ko- He again draws near his bureau,

sia pantalono,

Li prenas tondileton el tondilingo

li detondas la ungojn,

gofajlilo, li fajlas lin,

kied li sanas.

li poluras ilin per polurilo,

li pretigas sin forlasi la cambro.

La infano malsupreniras en la salonon, li renkontas tie la patro kaj la patrino, li sin direktas al la dua, li kisas ŝin. li deziras al ŝi bonan matenon, poste li iras kisi la patron, kiu demandas al li

Dume, la servistino metas la matenmanĝon sur the maid serves breakfast, si jetas jastan ripidan rigardon sur la she casts a last rapid glance upon the tablon,

si igas sin certa ke ĉiu afero estas sur gia loko tiam si sciigas ke la matenmanĝo estas preta.

ili entasas en la manĝoĉambron, ili prenas placonje la tablo, ili kunmetas la manojn,

ili kilmas la kapon,

kaj la patro elparolas la benon.

Post la preĝo ill prenas iliajn buŝtukojn, After the prayer they take their napkins, ili tiras ilin el la turkoringoj,

ili malfaldas ilin, ili etendas ilin sur iliajn genuojn.

Estas melonetoj sur la tablo, Tiujĉi melonoj estas duone tranĉitaj, ili estas plenigita per pistita glacio, ili lestis la tutan nokton en la glacikesto, tial ili estas tute malvarmaj kaj tre malsatigantai.

La patro al li proponas melonon, dirante, His father offers some melon by saying. "Cu vi deziras melonon?" "Do you want any melon?" La infano respondas, "Jes, patro, mi petas.'

li prenas puran postukon, he takes a clean handkerchief, li metas ĝin en la malantaŭan poŝon de he puts it in the hind pocket of his trousers.

> He takes a small pair of scissors from the scissors-case,

he clips his finger nails,

li purigas ilin per la pinto de sia un- he cleans them with the point of his nail-file,

he cleans them,

he polishes them with the polisher, he gets ready to leave the room.

The child goes down to the parlor, he meets there his father and mother, he goes to the latter, he kisses her, he wishes her good morning, then he goes to kiss his father, who asks him how he is.

Meanwhile

table, she makes sure that everything is in place, then she announces that breakfast is ready.

They pass into the dining-room, they take places at the table, they fold their hands, they bow their heads, and the father says grace.

they take them from their rings, they unfold them. they spread them upon their knees.

There are small melons upon the table, these melons are cut in halves, they are filled with crushed ice, they stayed all night in the icebox, therefore they are quite cold and very appetizing.

The child answers, "Yes, father, please."

La patro prenas duonon da melono, metas gin sur teleron, kaj pasigas ĝin al la infano, kiu diras, "Mi dankas vin, patro."

ksime de la infano, Tiu ĉi ŝutas la glacionen la teleron, prenas pulvoran sukeron, li supersutas la melonon per sukero.

Li prenas la kulereton, li malkunigas la maturan fruktokarnon he reaches the ripe flesh of the melon, de la melano, portas plenegan kuleron da frukotokarno carries a spoonful of it to his mouth, al la buŝo,

guas de la gusto, li manĝas ĝin, li daŭrigas sammaniere, li manĝas la tutan maturan parton, li lasas la nematuran parton.

The father takes half a melon, puts it on a plate, and passes it to the child, who says, "Thank you, father."

La servistino metas la sukerujon pro- The maid places the sugar bowl near the the latter pours the ice into his plate, he takes some powdered sugar, he sprinkles his melon with sugar.

He takes his small spoon,

he relishes the taste, he eats it, he keeps on in the same way, he eats all of the ripe part, he leaves the green part.

Talk About Books

LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN COUNTIES, TOWNS, AND VILLAGES. John A. Farlie, Ph. D., University of Michigan. Pp. 289. 73/4x51/6. The Century Company. \$1.25 net.

This book has one part devoted to historical matter, one each to the county and to minor divisions, and one to state supervision in local affairs. The book is systematic, admirably clear, and valuable as an examination of existing conditions. If it points the way to improvement at all, it does so by inevitable comparisons, and by records of actual workings. It is a candid study of things as they

THE SENSE OF THE INFINITE. Oscar Kuhns. Pp. 365. 734x71/2. Henry Holt & Co. \$1.50 net.

Professor Oscar Kuhns, of Wesleyan University, is known to Chautauquans by "Studies in the Poetry of Italy" and more lately by "A Reading Journey through Switzerland." They will be the more interested, therefore, in his present attempt to show the influence of the idealistic, the transcendental, the mystical, in the best of what men call literature, old and new, in religion, and in the really individual experiences of personal life. All who know Professor Kuhns either personally or by his writings will easily believe him when he says that this has been "a labor of love" and that his first concern was "to convince himself." He has brooded much and been little eager for publication. The ideas, sentiments, attitudes of mind which he describes have become part of the texture of his own thought, in affirmation or negation; and a quiet enthusiasm runs into even the passages which must be deliberately critical or expository. The book is to be admired for its exclusions as well as for what it attempts. Formal philosophy, theology, and the findings of modern science are not pertinent to it; neither is the mysticism of the Orient. It would show simply how the makers of what we hold high as literature from Plato down to the great figures of the Renaissance period and so on to Browning and Emerson, were moved by a personal sense of realities infinite and out of sight. This is done intelligibly, convincingly, and in a way to illumine a great deal in the study of literature. One of William Vaughn Moody's best passages is quoted to illustrate that the principle is not dead in our own time. That it is rooted in the common thought of the common people is proved by the eagerness of many to run pathetically after a deceiver like John Alexander Dowie. This, however, is only by the way.

The chapter on the Renaissance alone would make the book worth while.

THOUGHTS ON BUSINESS. Waldo Pondray Warren. Pp. 237. 734x51/6. Forbes & Co. Chicago. \$1.25.

This book is better than it looks. While it is no more cheaply bound nor cheaply printed than the average, yet the publishers have given it an unattractive appearance. Uneven paging, entire lack of ornamental heads or initials and also of effective spacing and typography, give one a dissatisfied feeling in handling the book. The contents are well worth reading. They have enough of humor and of grace to claim the attention and enough of substance to repay it. The brief discussion of points, originally written as editorials, are like a modernized Poor Richard's Almanac for their wisdom and for their insistence on the normal foundation of success. "Think Big," "Play Fair," "Please," "Waiting in the Anteroom," "The Contagion of Littleness" are among the titles.

Scottish Toasts. By Ivor Ben McIvor. And Irish Toasts. By Shane Na Gael. Pp. 111. 6x5. H. M. Caldwell Co. New York. Each 5oc.

Plaid and shamrock designs cover these two attractive looking little volumes and the pages have pretty margins. The contents are not great in quantity but various in quality. The most that can ordinarily be hoped of such volumes is that here and there a bit will have both humor and a meaning. The two volumes in question realize this hope. That the maudlin finds its way in, too, might almost be presumed from the titles.

ON THE WITNESS STAND. Hugo Münsterberg. Pp. 269. 7½x5¼. The McClure Co. \$1.50.

This is confessedly an adventure into new fields. Upon its main thesis it is very convincing, namely, that in the weighing and even

in the procuring of evidence, courts and juries might profit greatly by the advice of the psychologist, and that ill-grounded resistance to the use of available science in this direction must soon break down. By examples readily intelligible to the lay mind, it is illustrated how illusions and tricks of memory vitiate the testimony of intentionally faithful witnesses and how the psychologist could often detect these. A witness will testify that a gown seen in late twilight was red, while every psychologist knows that under the conditions red could not be distinguished; or that a sound came from in front whereas the sense of hearing registers no difference between sounds ahead and those behind the subject. It is shown that the sincerity of an accused person may be tested by the well established methods of the "associationists," when he professes to know nothing about a matter or when he professes to be disclosing his full knowledge. The danger of attaching too much value to confessions is well set forth, and the preposterousness of extracting confession by methods of suggestion and of cruel insistence. Under such treatment an innocent person is quite as likely to "confess" as a guilty. By human methods the psychologist is able to educe the knowledge of the subject, or to detect the wilful suppression of it.

This book, while only part of an intended larger work on "Applied Psychology" gives evidence of the unlimited pains for which the best of German investigators are provided. It betrays, too, some of the typical slowness to appreciate absurdity in one's own processes which has made German science, with all its achievements, often a source of amusement. If Professor Münsterberg asks his students what certain marks look like and one replies "hair in curling papers," while another says "a skunk on a log" (not a small dog, which would be sober and undiverting, but a skunk); it does not occur to him apparently, that the mind of American youth is perverse for humor's sake. So when he asks the size of the moon, he does not rule out as lacking seriousness the testimony which says "as large as a lemon pie." Maybe he thinks only a great psychologist would reflect that a custard pie or any other variety might be of equal proportions and so takes the answer as delightfully naive. In his chapter on the prevention of crime he shows very elaborately that after a moderate dose of alcohol "motor reactions have become easier," "apperception worse," "the whole ideational interplay has suffered, the inhibitions are reduced, the merely mechanical superficial connections control the mind and the intellectual processes are slow." "Is it necessary to point out," he asks, "that every one of these changes favors crime?" And yet he sounds the same warning against abstinence which appears in his recent article in McClure's and which David Starr Jordan characterizes as "arrant rot," namely, that to forget the evils of monotony is dangerous, that man was intended to escape occasionally from dull routine, and that if to become occasionally intoxicated were denied, man would surely and of necessity find more harmful avenues of escape. It is difficult of course for the lay mind to follow the thinking of a great scientist and we cannot wholly account for the professor's logic here. Perhaps he is somewhat less severely logical on account of his own wine cellar, which he intimates was so well stocked that burglars who entered the house through the cellar door were diverted from doing much in the upper stories.

There can hardly be a field bearing at all directly on practical life, in which freedom from vagaries would be more difficult than in Professor Münsterberg's present one; and on the whole he shows himself an enemy of vagaries. We repeat, he is very convincing as to the main thesis; and unless judges and lawyers know more of his subject than he gives them credit for, we wish they might all read his book.

THE SPIRIT OF LABOR. By Hutchins Hapgood. Duffield & Company. N. Y. Pp. 410. 714x514. \$1.50.

Of the types of character presented in this book the average polite reader has no intimate first-hand knowledge. Their way of thinking and speaking is likely to give him a strong shock now and then. Yet if he is healthy enough to desire understanding of realities in the life of American citizens, he will be held fast by the book and will be glad at the end that he has read it. For it has the unmistakable marks of artistic sincerity and of first-hand knowledge which give value to such revelation as it makes.

We question the use of so representative a title. Labor when most demonstrative and aggressive may frequently show the

Mr. Hapgood illustrates; but he admits that he had conscious difficulty in finding a type for his hero and it may be doubted whether labor is fairly represented by virile graduates from hoboism on the one hand and "anaemic" degenerates from the working grade to the grade of parasites on the other, all of whom have by common consent abolished the traditional forms of morality and know virtue only in its elemental forms. We have said that the existence of these types is undoubted; but that they represent labor in a broadly significant way is doubtful. We are still able to fancy the typical American workman as one who knows things are not wholly as they should be, who believes in a better future, but who meanwhile respects even capital if it is fair under the existing code, and who knows it is "not yet established that a man is a fool if he believes in God."

Certain undeniable tendencies in human nature and many significant facts regarding labor do strongly show in the book; and the thoughtful reader who does not mistake the occasional and the circumstantial for the fundamental will get only good from it.



